A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

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CONSTANCE BENEDICTA ZULU

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BY

CONSTANCE B. ZULU

Student number: 479-951-8

I declare that **A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UNITED KINGDOM** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Summary

Despite a growing body of literature on women in leadership, few studies have empirically investigated the leadership and management experiences of female academic heads of department. It is against this background that this study investigated the experiences of these women in universities in South Africa and the United Kingdom. The position of women in higher education in these countries, together with the status of their representation in senior positions in the academe and obstacles to their advancement into such positions was reviewed. The study was carried out within the framework of a cross-sectional survey research design employing both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview) data collection methods. The study consisted of thirty two female participants who were either currently or previously heads of academic departments in universities. For the interview a separate group of nine female academic heads of department, from the same universities as the participants in the survey, were selected. Purposeful sampling was used to select all the participants. A structured, pre-coded questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from one group of twenty three female participants with a minimum of two years' experience in the position. A video conference focus group interview was used to obtain in-depth (qualitative) information on a number of selected issues. The quantitative data was analysed using a relevant statistical package. Key-findings from both survey and interviews were then co-ordinated. The major findings indicated that, apart from lack of mentorship and formal preparation for the position, the women did not experience any major obstacles prior to becoming head of department. The women were confident about several skills related to managing an academic department. They were not certain, however, about stress management, delegation and entrepreneurial skills. Leadership style tended toward 'interactive leadership' which is considered appropriate for today's leadership in organisations. The findings suggested that institutional and other barriers to women's advancement still exist, and that the challenges and demands women experience may be a source of stress and tension for them. Recommendations, using these findings, were made for aspiring women managers, for institutions, for policy makers and for future research.

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Dedication

To my parents and my aunt (bless their souls).

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CHAPTER 1 : PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIM AND METHOD

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study I investigate the experiences of women heads of academic departments (HoDs) of universities in South Africa and the United Kingdom (UK). The absence of women in senior positions of leadership and management at universities is well documented (Astin and Davis 1993, Bagilhole 2003, Blackmore 2002, Brooks 1997, Brown 1997, Fine 2003, Forster 2001, Kettle 1996, Petersen & Gravett 2000, Soldewell 1979, Sutherland 1985), and many of these studies have also investigated the barriers that prevent women from advancing into senior leadership and management positions, but very little research has been done to investigate what happens to women once they attain positions of leadership and management in organisations. In other words, very few studies have attempted to document the experiences of women who have, against all odds, 'shattered the glass ceiling' in the academic world. This study was motivated by a longitudinal study into gender representation patterns at 21 South African universities which this researcher carried out between 2000 and 2002 (Zulu 2003). This study revealed that women were in the minority in middle and senior management positions in universities and this prompted an interest to investigate how the few women who had managed to get to these positions had done it, and what, once in those positions, their experience was.

1.1.1 Background of the study

Research on women in management/leadership, particularly by women researchers, has only received attention in the last three decades.
As Klenke (1996:15) notes:

> Most leadership research prior to the 1980s was carried out by men and dealt almost exclusively with male leaders, variously defined as supervisors, managers, administrators, or commanders.

> Similarly, virtually all theories of leadership, past and present, have been developed by men, and only recently have feminist scholars begun to respond to the androcentrism which permeates study in this field. Because women have been largely absent in the study of leadership, much of our knowledge of leadership has been derived from the description and analysis of male leaders reported by male researchers.

A preliminary review of the literature revealed that very few studies are devoted to the leadership of women in education establishments and even fewer to the headship of women in higher education. Part of the problem may be because the career paths of women in management are fraught with obstacles. Hence fewer women than is desirable make it into senior positions in the academe. Powney (1997:56) sums this up with her statement that "many women …have a struggle to reach managerial positions in higher education and in the career stages leading up to a post in a university or college of higher education." Some of the obstacles listed in several studies include racism, sexism and class. Women in general suffer discriminatory practices when promotions to senior positions are considered, (Powney 1997, Tinsley 1984, Greyvenstein 2000, Petersen & Gravett 2000, Mathipa & Tsoka 2001, Jackson 2002, Heward 1996, Brown 1997, Klenke 1996), but black women or women from ethnic minorities suffer the additional prejudice of race and colour (see Bell & Nkomo 2003, Kawewe 1997, Trotman Reid 1990, Powney 1997). A small scale research project was carried out in the UK aimed at drawing on the experiences of women and black and ethnic minority managers in educational institutions. Powney (1997:55) lists some of these discriminatory practices reported by her informants:

- being set up for a job which had already been earmarked for someone else or where there seemed to be an implicit colour bar

- job applications from black applicants which went missing

- a local education authority adviser giving a black female teacher misleading criteria applicable for secondment to study for a higher degree

- several examples of black candidates having to make a seemingly inordinate number of applications before obtaining promotion.

The influence of class, racism and sexism on the career advancement and managerial experiences of women will be discussed in more detail in chapter 3. For the purposes of this study, the middle management position, HoD, has been selected as the unit of analysis for two main reasons. Firstly, the HoD is crucial to the future of the institution and faculty (Gmelch & Miskin 1993) and secondly, the HoD position is more likely to provide the researcher with an adequate number of female informants than any other senior position within an institution.

Leadership and management in this study are distinguished from each other. Although one aspect of the functions of a manager is leading, a manager may not necessarily be a leader. In some situations it is possible for a manager to be a leader. However, the debate about leadership versus management and whether the two are distinct or synonymous belongs elsewhere. This study concerns itself with the dual role of an academic HoD as an academic/professional leader and a line manager.

Wisker (1996:109) differentiates leaders from managers, arguing that leaders are "involved in a mission; motivation; creativity and change, while managers concentrate more on organisations; time; space and people relationships, negotiating structures and systems." If, for the sake of this study, this view is to be adopted, then academic HoDs face role ambiguity where their very jobs are subject to inadequate and unclear role definition. Newly appointed heads of academic department are often vague about the amount of authority they possess or the exact duties and responsibilities attached to their post (Bennett 1997).

The current period of transformation in South African universities brings with it competing demands and expectations for the HoD. Eriksson (1999:82) describes how

changes in Swedish universities have caused an increase in the delegation of authority to departments "resulting in greater demands on the department chair as the *head* of that department; as manager *and* a leader. These new expectations and demands may cause role conflict and ambiguity." In a study on the role of the university HoD, conducted in four universities in the UK, (Smith 2002), the issue of dual roles of academic manager and academic leader was recognised as the most frequent cause of tension. Also having to represent the university to the department and the department to the university and the different expectations of the two constituencies was another cause of tension (Smith 2002). Sutherland (1985) found, in her study, that the issue of family responsibilities was cited by university women as a major source of conflict between their career and family life. University women often have to divide their attention and time between childbearing, childrearing and a career. Female heads of academic departments then, unlike ordinary university women, experience a 'triple' role conflict.

Greene et al (1996) observe that the role of the academic HoD is changing as a result of the transforming university. Whereas traditionally HoDs were elected to office on the basis of their research standing and had recognised authority as academic leaders in recent times their position has become much more demanding in terms of ability to manage more effectively. The movement from a collegial culture to a corporate culture has placed new demands on the HoD and caused further role uncertainty. Harman (2002:54) asks this question:

> Are the new generation of deans and heads more inclined to be corporate managers rather than more traditional academic leaders, with their loyalties now being more to their vice chancellors rather than to their academic colleagues?

It would appear that the constant pressure and demands placed upon HoDs to run their departments like business units, submitting business plans and making budget projections, have made the position of the HoD more managerial. However, it would seem that female leadership attributes maybe more suited to the current climate of transformation in universities because, as Bennett (1997:189) puts it, "women managers adopting feminine management styles are better suited to contemporary business

conditions than males since modern management techniques are invariably based on teamwork, flexibility, trust and the free exchange of information". In addition, Middlehurst (1997) echoes the same sentiment when she notes that changes in technology coupled with increasing economic competition are promoting various collaborative ventures which are amenable to female abilities and constraints. This suggests that female leadership styles are probably better suited to today's corporate-like environment in universities than the traditional male leadership styles.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The current state of higher education transformation with its movement from a collegial culture to a corporate culture (Harman 2002, Greene et al 1996, Smith 2002), makes it all the more necessary to take a closer look at the changing role of middle management and how women managers experience it. Establishing how these women perceive their roles as women managers has the potential to contribute further knowledge toward higher education management regarding how women academics experience their positions of leadership and management, as well as the expansion of the research database concerning middle management issues in education settings. The study might serve to strengthen efforts to implement equal opportunities policies in those universities where only lip-service is being paid, and might encourage more women to put themselves forward for appointment to management positions once they are armed with information to help them deal with the demands of being a woman manager. Moreover, university policymakers might consider mounting programmes to adequately prepare women (and men) for management and leadership roles and responsibilities.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There are few women managers in higher educational establishments and little is known about their experience of being manager. Many research studies have tended to focus on male managers and ignore the experiences of those women who have made it into the traditionally male territory of academic leadership and management. These women are likely to experience their dual roles of academic leader and line manager differently to

male managers and leaders. They are also likely to have the additional role of homemaker which their male counterparts are not usually expected to play. The challenges these women face before they enter management positions may be unique to women and are therefore worth investigating.

Consequently this study poses the research question:

What are the experiences of women academic HoDs in higher education management in South Africa and the UK?

To seek an answer to the research question, the researcher investigated the following sub-problems:

- What are the challenges, opportunities and constraints experienced by women academic HoDs prior to ascending into middle management positions?
- What are the women academic HoD's experiences of their job as middle managers with its attendant tensions between various roles and responsibilities?
- What are the experiences of leadership and management of a small sample of women managers in middle management positions in universities in South Africa and the UK?
- What recommendations, using the research findings, can be made for the improvement of practice with regard to the career development of women academic HoDs (and other women academics aspiring to be academic leaders and managers) and for equitable policy development by academic policymakers?

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The principal aim of this comparative study therefore is to investigate the experiences of women academic HoDs in higher education management in South Africa and the UK. The specific aims of this study are to:

- describe the challenges, opportunities and constraints experienced by women in the academic arena before ascending into middle management positions

- explore the academic HoD's experiences of her job as middle manager with its attendant tensions between various roles and responsibilities

- explore the leadership and management experiences of a small sample of academic women HoDs in universities in South Africa and the UK

- develop a set of recommendations, using the research results, for the improvement of the career development of academic women HoDs and aspiring women academic leaders and managers as well as for equitable policy development by academic policymakers.

1.5. EXPLANATION OF KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

The following concepts and terms are defined in the way they are used in this study:

- academic women HoDs**:** women who head academic departments as opposed to administrative departments or non-academic departments
- collegial: the traditional model of governance in universities which is "based upon the notion of a collegiate or utopian community of scholars which favours full participation in decision-making, especially by the faculty" Dressel (1981:216)
- corporate**:** business-like management of an enterprise
- leadership**:** an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes (Daft 2005:5); leadership is about coping with change (Kotter 1993:27).
- management: the attainment of organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling organizational resources (Daft 2005:16); management is about coping with complexity (Kotter 1993:27).

- home-maker: a combination of the role of wife and mother and all related responsibilities such as child-rearing, looking after the home and the welfare of the family.
- role**:** a total and self -contained pattern of behaviour typical of a person who occupies a social position (Bennett 1997:125).
- Lived experiences: a "term used in phenomenological studies to emphasize the importance of individual experiences of people as conscious human beings"(Moustakas, 1994 cited in Creswell, 2007:236).

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The problem was investigated by means of a literature study and an empirical investigation**.** The research is exploratory and descriptive by design. Therefore no hypotheses are formulated and tested as the aim is to describe the lived experiences of female academic HoDs from their personal perspectives. The chief data collection methods used are quantitative and qualitative methods, namely survey and interviews, which serve to complement rather than rival each other in the study. The rationale for this choice of method is to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study by comparing data obtained by the two methods. The theoretical bases for the quantitative and qualitative methods are detailed in chapter 4. Flick (2002:265-266), distinguishes two alternative ways of concretising the use of these two methods. The one is to focus the single case where the same people are interviewed and fill in a questionnaire. Their answers in both are compared with each other, put together and referred to each other in the analysis. Sampling decisions are taken in two steps. The same people are included in both parts of the study, but in the second step it has to be decided which participants of the survey study are selected for the interviews. The other alternative is to establish the link between quantitative and qualitative research on the level of the data set (p226). The answers to the questionnaires are analysed for their frequency and distribution across the whole sample and the answers in the interviews are analysed and compared and in this way a typology is developed. Then the distribution of the questionnaire answers and the typology are linked and compared. It is this latter alternative which is employed in this study - with some modifications as described in section *1.6.2.3 (b).*

1.6.1 Literature study

A thorough review of the relevant literature concerned with women in management in universities and related educational settings was undertaken as a preliminary step in the research. Primary and secondary sources were consulted to identify critical issues in past research and to establish current thinking on the subject of women in management in universities, particularly academic HoDs. Such a review will provide insight into different perspectives on the subject and present a framework for further exploration as well as a basis for the identification of variables to be included in the study.

1.6.2 Empirical investigation

An overview of the empirical investigation is given in this section. Details of the methodology and research design are presented in chapter 4.

A non-experimental cross-sectional survey research design is employed as the present study is partly descriptive, exploratory and explanatory in nature.

A combined quantitative (survey) and qualitative (interviews) methodology is chosen because the two methods complement each other. The quantitative method, on the one hand, has the potential to gather a large amount of standardised information from several informants. The standardisation of responses facilitates scoring and analysis and the method can be used to obtain factual, less personal information (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:251). On the other hand, a qualitative method gathers in-depth and elaborate information from a small purposefully selected sample. In this study the sample for this group is drawn from the same population as that from which the survey sample is drawn consequently increasing the likelihood of obtaining consistent data. The qualitative method supplements the quantitative one as it elicits information of a personal nature and allows the participants to express feelings and opinions on issues which the questionnaire items do not allow. The video conference focus group interview was chosen as the qualitative method because it creates a social environment in which group members are

stimulated by each others' perceptions and ideas and so increases the quality and richness of data (McMillan & Schumacher 1993: 432). Moreover, the focus group method serves to cross validate data collected by means of the questionnaire. While the method "gauges consensus of feeling on the research issues" (Briggs 2005:31), the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in the design of the study allows 'triangulation' with the more in-depth responses from interview participants (Lumby, J. 2003). In the words of Collard (2001:345), it also serves to "generate [a] more comprehensive account" of the experiences of women academic HoDs and hence provide a strong basis for the generation of theory.

1.6.2.1 Phase one: the survey

a) Selection of respondents

Respondents are female academic HoDs selected by means of purposive or judgement sampling techniques which is a strategy to choose small groups or individuals likely to be knowledgeable as well as informative about the phenomena of interest (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:413). The participants were selected because of their position as HoD and with a minimum of two years in the position. In South Africa these were drawn from retained universities, namely, those which were not merging or merged with other universities. Informants from South African universities were first located by means of telephone contact with a human resources department person at a relevant institution. Once contact with the prospective respondent was established, a brief telephone interview was conducted to screen her. She was also informed that an email would follow shortly with more details about the research. When all the prospective respondents were thus screened, a list was drawn up with all their relevant details. This list was then carefully scrutinised to determine which of the prospective respondents to invite for the survey and which ones for the interviews. Once the selection was made, the prospective respondents were contacted by email and/or by telephone.

Respondents from the UK were first identified through a search of the respective university's website and then contacted by email. Of the four universities selected in

South Africa one was traditionally English; one traditionally Afrikaans; one traditionally African and one traditionally 'coloured'/Indian. The two universities in the UK were both traditionally English with black and other ethnic minorities. 23 female academic HoDs participated in the survey (15 from South Africa and 8 from the UK).

b) Data gathering instruments and data gathering

A structured sixteen page questionnaire consisting of a combination of close-ended pre-coded items and open-ended items was used to obtain data from the 23 female academic HoDs from six universities in South Africa and the UK. The questionnaire was mailed by post to all the respondents (henceforth referred to as participants). After four weeks, a follow up letter together with a copy of the questionnaire was sent to all who had not responded.

c) Analysis of quantitative data

The SAS/STAT statistical package, version 9.1 was used to analyse the data captured from the questionnaire responses. Analyses undertaken included one-way frequencies; combined frequency tables; means calculations (standard deviations, minimum and maximum values) and cross-tabulations (details in chapter 4).

1.6.2.2 Phase Two: the interviews

a) Selection of informants

Selection of informants for the interviews followed exactly the same procedure as for the survey. Informants from South African universities were first located through telephone contact with a human resources department person at the relevant institution. Once contact with the informant was established, a brief telephone interview was conducted in order to screen the prospective informant. If she was found suitable, she was invited to participate in these focus group interviews. Six female heads of academic departments from the selected South African universities participated in the interviews.

To locate suitable UK participants, the websites of the two selected universities were visited. A thorough search of each university's departments was done to locate female HoDs. Communication with all the UK informants was by email. Three women heads of academic departments participated in the interviews.

b) Data gathering

The video conference focus group interview (V Conf-FGI) was used to gather data from nine informants (henceforth referred to as participants). Four interview sessions were held and participants attended according to pre-arranged schedules. Participants were emailed semi-structured interview guides prior to attending the interviews. The interviews were guided by the interview schedule and so were mostly "topic oriented" to borrow Lee's and Fielding's words (2004:533). Interviews were recorded on videotape and notes were taken at each interview session. These were examined for key themes and written out according to topic and filed. The videotape was played back to listen for, and to note, any patterns in the interview procedure and discussion which could be incorporated into subsequent sessions.

c) Analysis of qualitative data

Analysis of the data began as soon as the first interview was completed and continued throughout data gathering. At the end of the interviews the video tapes were transcribed and the data examined for key issues raised by participants in response to each topic. From these key issues, patterns were noted and data were categorised and discussed accordingly. Qualitative data from the interviews which corresponded with that from the survey were integrated. Patterns emerging from the data were noted and the findings were interpreted.

1.6.2.3 Issues during research

One of the main issues during research concerned the logistics of organising and synchronising the video conference focus group interviews. The cost involved in conducting the interviews was another problem, particularly because of the different currencies and prevailing exchange rates between the UK Pound Sterling and the South African Rand.

1.6.2.4 Trustworthiness of data

In this study, both samples of participants (the survey and the interview) were gathered from a similar pool of respondents. This ensured a greater likelihood of obtaining reliable data. Moreover, standard conditions were established for each method of data collection. The equivalent questionnaire was mailed out to participants after being piloted and refined with the help of experts. For the interviews, the same procedure was followed. The interview schedule was piloted and refined before final administration. The participants were interviewed under similar conditions; that included starting time and duration of interview, interview schedule and role of researcher. To ensure reliability and validity of the data, the interviews were video-recorded, and additional notes were taken. The interviews took place under professional conditions. Every effort was made by the researcher to establish rapport with the participants.

1.6.2.5 Limitations of research

An acknowledgement of the limitations of this study may be in order.

Firstly a random sampling technique was not employed as its aim was to focus on universities with women heads of academic department. Therefore, universities with no female heads of academic department were excluded from the study. Consequently the research has a restricted dataset which limits generalisation of its findings. However, since the study is exploratory in nature and largely descriptive, no attempt was made to put forward hypotheses to be rejected or confirmed. Rather, an attempt was made to

establish patterns and trends and relationships between certain variables in the quantitative part of the study, and to understand and describe the management and leadership experiences of women HoDs in the qualitative part.

Secondly, although the sample was representative in terms of race (black and white), it was predominantly white and the results may thus reflect the experiences of this majority. Lastly, although the participants were drawn from a pool with similar characteristics, there were two groups, one for the survey and another for interviews. The reason for this choice was based on logistical considerations. Two countries halfway across the world from each other were involved. They are in different time zones. Calendars and heavy work loads were considered. The amount of time for completing the questionnaire and for participating in the interviews was taken into account.

1.6.2.6 Particular problems encountered during research process

Communication problems were experienced in the case of the video conference focus group interviews, where, in one session the link with one centre frequently broke-down, until it disappeared altogether. The participant, however, agreed to complete the interview by telephone. A major frustration was not being able to get responses from a certain group of participants even after numerous telephone and email reminders as well as the questions being couriered to them.

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

The divisions and brief outlines of the key contents of each chapter are set out in this chapter:

- chapter 2 –overview of the literature is devoted to a comprehensive review of the literature related to the study, including the theoretical framework that has informed the study as well as an expansion and further elucidation of key concepts
- chapter 3 – literature review continued

- chapter 4 – research design and methodology a detailed description of the methodology used in the study is given; the research design is specified, methods of data collection are described and data analysis procedures are outlined
- chapter 5 – presentation and discussion of research findings; the data obtained by means of the questionnaire and the interviews is presented and discussed according to certain key topics and themes
- chapter 6 - synthesis, conclusions and recommendations are found in this chapter; a set of recommendations are made for the improvement of the career development of women academic HoDs; these are based on the findings of the empirical investigation into the experiences of women academic HoDs; suggestions for future research are made and the limitations of this study are outlined.

1.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented an orientation to the problem under investigation and outlined the background and preliminary review of the literature in order to contextualise the problem and to provide a point of departure. Aims and objectives have been specified and key concepts used in the study have been operationalised. A preliminary description of the research methodology, outlining how the problem will be addressed, has been presented and an indication of the main topics to be discussed in the rest of the chapters of the dissertation has been given. It is apparent from the literature reviewed so far, that academic women in higher education management are likely to experience leadership and management in ways that differ from the traditional, stereotyped male definition of these concepts, and that given the current move towards a corporate culture in education settings, female leadership and management styles may be more suitable.

The next chapter discusses women in management and leadership in universities with special attention paid to how the new managerialism may impact on academic women; an overview of women in leadership and management; leadership and management in the academe – theoretical and practical aspects; the challenges of headship and women academic leaders and their experience of academic leadership.

CHAPTER 2 : LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN UNIVERSITIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The review of related literature is discussed in this chapter which presents an overview of leadership and management in general and academic leadership in particular. The chapter focuses on academic women leaders and the 'new managerialism' with an overview of women in leadership and management in universities including:

- the distinction between leadership and management
- women and management
- female leadership style
- critique of female leadership style discourse
- leadership and management in the academe which takes account of transformational and transactional leadership
- leadership at departmental level comprising the roles and responsibilities of the academic head of department and exercise of power
- exercise of leadership and power from the perspective of women academic leaders and finally a
- summary and conclusion.

The study of leadership and management in the academic context is particularly pertinent in this era of major transformation in higher education. Women in leadership and management presents an especially important area of investigation considering research findings about the suitability of their leadership attributes to the changing culture of higher education management. In this chapter the author especially looks at what women experience in their exercise of leadership and management.

2.2 ACADEMIC WOMEN AND THE "NEW MANAGERIALISM"

The current wave of transformation in universities in South Africa has brought with it the inauguration of different forms of management and a fresh corporate culture. Universities

are traditionally collegial in nature and academics are essentially self-regulatory, independent and autonomous. Their collegiality is characterised by a culture of loose policy definition and loose control of implementation (Dopson & McNay 1996). But this collegiality is being fast eroded and replaced by what is termed 'the new managerialism' or the corporatisation of the academe. This is built upon principles of the corporate world with a culture that is characterised by tight policy definition and control of implementation (Dopson & McNay 1996), arising out of the new globalisation and marketisation of educational institutions (Blackmore 2002). 'New managerialism' in Johnson's (2002:34) perspective is "a complex of various and often contradictory organisational and management responses to the programme of reform of publicly funded services instigated by many Western governments over the past two decades." In South Africa this 'programme of reform' of higher education institutions is still in its early stages. In the context of new managerialism, management and leadership inevitably take on new forms resembling those of the corporate world – with an emphasis on efficiency and effectiveness. As a result HoDs now find themselves inundated with paperwork, marketing programmes, recruiting students, managing decentralised budgets linked to cost centres, performing quality audits and performance appraisals and other such non-academic responsibilities.

What is of concern to this and other researchers concerning women academic leaders/managers is: where in all these rapid changes do women middle managers (in this study - academic HoDs) fit in? and what is the likely impact of the 'new managerialism' on the gains made in equity in the academe?

It would seem from current changes and the evident move towards corporatisation that male hegemony is being reinforced. But what does the literature reveal? Several international researchers of the 'new managerialism' (sometimes referred to as academic managerialism) in schools and higher education in Australia, the United Kingdom (UK), Canada, New Zealand, the United States of America (USA) and South Africa share a common perspective on the likely impact of this paradigm shift on the academe, particularly on women academics and women leaders.

Watson (2000:7), quoting Rosemary Deem's definition of new managerialism, says, "it is a complex ideology which informs ways of managing public institutions by advocating many of the practices and values of the private for-profit sector in pursuit of efficiency, excellence and continuous improvement." Watson observes however, that Deem seems to advocate a different kind of managerialism characterised by "a more sensitive approach" which stresses "collaborative and facilitative management, concern for people rather than just focusing on tasks, a lack of interest in personal status and competing with others, flexibility in approach and…ability to work as a member of a team" (Watson 2000:7-8).

It seems clear from this perspective that Deem expresses concern for the possible erosion of female styles of management in the advent of the 'new managerialism' which seems to favour competition over team work and collaboration. One common perspective shared by researchers (Blackmore 2000, 2002; Hall 2002; Kenway & Langmead 2002; Reynolds 2002; Saunderson 2002) in the United Kingdom (UK), Canada and Australia regarding the 'new managerialism' is that it brings with it ambiguities for women academics and leaders as well as managers. Consequent to a recognition of the need for the leadership talent of women and of the need for a "more sensitive approach to people management, an approach that will capture both the hearts and minds of workers" (Blackmore 2000:50), it would seem that opportunities should open up for women academics aspiring to be leaders and managers. However, no sooner do women enter executive positions than they leave as a result of what is referred to as "a rapidly revolving door" which ensures that women enter and exit executive positions rapidly (Blackmore 2002:51).The ambiguity lies in the fact that while on the one hand, there are discourses concerning inclusion and arguments for more "feminine qualities" of leadership, on the other hand the "hegemonic culture of competitive success remains unchanged" (Kanter 1990 in Blackmore 2002:51).

Using data from a large qualitative study of women school leaders in Victoria, Australia, Blackmore sought to outline ways in which currently available leadership scripts limit possibilities and /or provide opportunities for women who lead in education. Her conclusion is that the current paradigm is "a threat not only to feminism and feminist teachers in universities, but to the overall position of women in the society". This

sentiment is echoed by Kenway and Langmead (2002: 127-8). They observe how this new paradigm (in contemporary Australian universities) could impact women's leadership possibilities and affect any gains made in "policy initiatives and improvements in fostering anti-sexist practices…". Kenway and Langmead are clearly concerned about the future of feminism in contemporary universities.

Johnson (2002) reports on a project to examine the extent to which the 'new managerialism' has permeated the management of UK universities. This project was undertaken in the UK on a sample of 'manager-academics' which included vice-chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors and HoDs. Although the study was not limited to female manager-academics, its findings have important implications for women HoDs working within the new context of higher education management. The increased volume of work and new demands and responsibilities placed upon HoDs necessitates constant learning, re-skilling and re-tooling. This may demand time away from home, which, although not in itself a bad thing, may add pressure and stress on women who are already overloaded.

An interesting observation was made by Hall when studying women principals in Britain during the 'new managerialism' era. She observed "contrasting interpretations of entrepreneurial activity in education, which on the one hand condemn it and on the other hand applaud it" (Hall 2002:13). This observation is echoed by Saunderson (2002), who writes about the current position and problems of academic women working "within the context and constraints of the 'new managerialism' in the UK higher education system". She raises concerns about the impact of the 'new managerialism' in UK higher education upon women's academic identity and experience of academia, which she says is often compounded by the changing "ethos, praxis and pedagogy of UK higher education institutions in the twenty-first century (Saunderson 2002:379). She observes that a fundamental incongruence/anomaly is suggested between the values of academic women and the values of 'academic managerialism'. Values of academic women include "social justice, equity, collegialism and co-operation" and these appear to be incongruent with the values of "efficiency, individualism and competition of academic managerialism". In an analysis of the personal accounts of academic women in UK universities by Brown

(2000), it was found that “issues of equal opportunities…were central to the issues found to disadvantage academic women [who] reported marginalisation and isolation from disciplinary, departmental and organisational networks – deemed very important for ‘success’ in the current ‘corporatist’ academic culture”(Saunderson 2002:384).

In a preliminary survey of academics conducted in six South African higher education institutions, Webster and Mosoetsa (2001) report several changes in the academic workplace brought about by what they refer to as ‘academic managerialism’. Their findings do not focus on women academics but on all academics. They report that academics have difficulty adjusting to being called line managers and to relating to management in an employer/employee capacity rather than as colleagues. Personal relationships with HoDs which existed before have now changed to distant relationships. There were feelings that academics’ professional autonomy was being undermined and their status reduced. This was accompanied by a loss of the sense of community and feelings of powerlessness. Webster and Mosoetsa concluded by pointing out that ‘academic managerialism’ in South African higher education “has not adequately recognised the distinctive occupational culture of academics or the specificities of public sector institutions” (Webster & Mosoetsa 2001:79). From this preliminary survey, it is clear that in South Africa a great deal of research still needs to be conducted into the likely impact of the ‘new managerialism’ particularly on women academics and women leaders and managers in higher education.

In conclusion, the ‘new managerialism’ / ‘academic managerialism’ appears to be a serious threat to the gains made in equity efforts in the academe. The evident erosion of collegial forms of governance (believed to be amenable to women) and their replacement with corporate principles of efficiency and effectiveness may be inimical to women and may also, in effect, block their path to advancement to managerial positions. Instead the ‘new managerialism’ seems more likely to perpetuate male dominance (to be precise, white male dominance), and in the words of Blackmore (2002:426) “impart more power to the powerful…”.

2.3 WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT - AN OVERVIEW

Women in leadership and management is a fairly new field of study and one with several possibilities especially in this age of modern management.

Before moving into a detailed discussion of this issue, an elucidation of the concepts 'leadership' and 'management' and how they differ from each other will be useful. Many researchers do however use the concepts 'leadership' and 'management' as well as 'leader' and 'manager' interchangeably. This will become evident as the discussion progresses. Although the literature indicates that a debate exists whether leadership is synonymous with management or if a distinction exists between the two, the discussion that follows presents the latter perspective – that there is a distinction between leadership and management and between a leader and a manager. Kotter's (1993) perspective on leadership and management, as well as that of Zaleznik (1993), will be considered.

2.3.1 The leadership and management distinction

In his article 'What leaders really do', Kotter (1993:26) writes:

> Leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activities.…both leadership and management are necessary for success in an increasingly volatile business environment …and the real challenge is to combine strong leadership and strong management and use each to balance the other…management is about coping with complexity [whereas] leadership…is about coping with change… [and] these different functions shape the characteristic activities of management and leadership.

Firstly, management accomplishes the function of coping with complexity by planning and budgeting whilst leadership accomplishes change by first setting a direction. Secondly, management develops the capacity to achieve its plan by organising and staffing, whereas leadership does so by aligning people. Thirdly, management ensures

accomplishment by controlling and problem-solving. Leadership does the same by motivating and inspiring (Kotter 1993).

Zaleznik (1993) distinguishes leaders and managers along similar lines as Kotter's (1993). In his, 'Managers and leaders: are they different?', Zaleznik illustrates that "leaders and managers are basically different types of people" and attempts to demonstrate "that managers and leaders have different attitudes toward their goals, careers, relations with others and themselves" (Zaleznik 1993:36). He traces the different lines of development of managers and leaders whose progress, he says, depends on their forming a one-to-one relationship with a mentor. Managers tend to adopt impersonal attitudes towards goals. Their goals arise out of necessities rather than desires and therefore are deeply embedded in the history and culture of the organisation, whereas leaders are active rather than re-active, shaping ideas instead of responding to them. They adopt a personal and active attitude towards goals. Leaders and managers also differ in their conceptions of work. Whereas managers tend to view work as an enabling process involving some combination of people and ideas interacting to establish strategies and make decisions, and act to limit choices, leaders work in the opposite direction, to develop fresh approaches to long-standing problems and to open issues up to new options. Managers prefer to work with people and relate to them according to the role they play in a sequence of events or in a decision making *process*, while leaders who are concerned with ideas, relate in more intuitive and empathetic ways. In short, the manager pays attention to *how* things get done and a leader pays attention to *what* the events and decisions mean to participants (Zaleznik 1993).

2.3.2 Women and management

The study of women and leadership/management is a recent phenomenon, chiefly because historically, leadership has been concerned with the study of political leadership, of "great men" who defined power, authority, and knowledge (Klenke 1996). Leadership as Sandler (1993:193) puts it, "has been generally associated with men and with male styles of behaviour, and because women have not been in leadership positions in great numbers, the mental image of a leader held by most people is male". Klenke (1996: 15)

notes that “most leadership research prior to the 1980’s was carried out by men and dealt almost exclusively with male leaders…because women have been largely absent in the study of leadership, much of our knowledge of leadership has been derived from the description and analysis of male leaders reported by male researchers…leadership has been synonymous with masculinity”.

The concept of leadership is strongly embedded in gender stereotypes, and as Middlehurst observes:

> the language of leadership has masculine connotations, images of leaders are often male heroes… and popular contexts for leadership encompass traditionally masculine scenarios…common perceptions of appropriate leadership behaviours also carry stereotypically masculine overtones: of command and control, of autocracy and dominance, or personal power or charisma, decisiveness, initiative and courage…because management and leadership have for long been predominantly male enclaves, the picture of the ideal manager is grounded in masculine attributes (Middlehurst 1997:12-13).

Consequently the ‘male script’ of leadership is still firmly entrenched in organisations. Universities are the main ‘culprits’ of male hegemony, and despite the recognition of women’s leadership potential as “future leaders in the twenty-first century and as the future in academic leaders” (Gale 1994 cited by Kessissoglou 1995:8), their gender is, according to Klenke (1996), a barrier in the evaluation of female leaders and “acts as a filter for assessing women’s leadership skills and effectiveness” (p17).

It was not until women in leadership began to form a critical mass that the issue of gender and leadership was given attention. As women gained visibility, so did the recognition of their potential as leaders. However, despite this, their leadership progress is very slow particularly in higher education. Johnson (1993:10) reporting on the status of women’s leadership in higher education, writes that “women administrators continue to be clustered in middle management positions and areas outside of academic deanships and other more central administrative positions”.

As indicated, women are perceived as the potential academic leadership of the twenty-first century. The Karpin Report, the Working Party on Management Education (1995), suggested that "more women and those of non-Anglo background are likely to be managers in the twenty-first century" (Blackmore 2002:50). Leadership in this century demands different skills, the type most commonly associated with women, which comprise abilities to:

- empower others and fill them with enthusiasm
- build informal networks and coalitions
- be flexible and responsive to customer and client needs
- nurture and develop individuals
- be willing to share information and operate in an open and transparent manner
- articulate core values and so develop culture through the creation of shared meaning (Middlehurst 1997).

It is widely recognised that women have alternative ways of problem-solving and dealing with conflict. Bennett (1997) is concerned about the extent to which orthodox leadership theory is applicable to the needs of women managers and points out that in the past, leadership studies have focused almost entirely on the behaviour of male managers. Studies on the leadership styles of women suggest that women tend to adopt more democratic and participative management styles than males. They share power and information and support and encourage subordinates. Women managers are said to be persuasive, influential and charismatic and make extensive use of interpersonal skills. Moreover, as Bennett (1997:189) has observed:

> women managers adopting feminine management styles are better suited to contemporary business conditions than males since modern management techniques are invariably based on teamwork, flexibility, trust and the free exchange of information.

After observing how six women school administrators were using power, managing staff and transforming some of the externally generated reforms for the benefit of the school, Hall (2002) concluded that their behaviour demonstrated a model of educational entrepreneurialism that eschews conventional managerialism in order to preserve the integrity of the educational enterprise and its ultimate goal that of young people's learning and development (p20). Hall's findings showed that for women being manager and leader "is not about compromised values and domination of others" (p21). Many women educational/academic leaders working in masculine environments have developed a repertoire of management and leadership behaviour that works toward the ethical as well as for the social benefit of education (p26).

The context in which universities operate today is being rapidly transformed by changes in technology, increasing international competition and globalisation of the economy (Ramsay 2000). These technological changes have brought with them a demand for new skills and fresh ways of working which require innovative abilities from the new leaders and managers. Ramsay notes, for instance, that communication technology, "demands communication skills of a particular and new kind, and also 'protean' managers flexible and adaptable enough to thrive in constantly changing environments" (p2). Many of these changes in approach, attitudes and ways of working (Middlehurst 1997) are more likely to be applicable to women managers than to male managers. Ramsay reports that CEOs' responses in the Korn Ferry research project identified women managers as empathetic, supportive, relationship-building, power-sharing as well as information sharing; whereas male managers were characterised as risk-taking, self-confident, competitive, decisive and direct. Qualities such as sharing power and information are required by managers of the future – and women apparently possess them. Ramsay also points out that Malaysian studies on the leadership attributes of men and women in universities have found that women are more "consultative and conciliatory, avoid conflict, and are more likely to be task oriented than their male colleagues". She adds that women in leadership in universities are often described as "co-operative, team-oriented, collaborative, fair and contextual," whereas men are described as "competitive, hierarchical, winning, rational, cold and principled" (p2). Furthermore the guiding principles of women leaders of further education colleges in the UK are listed as:

- valuing and motivating
- team working and decision-making
- listening
- students coming first
- accountability
- honesty and integrity
- equality of opportunity and empowerment
- commitment to community
- commitment to staff
- being a reflective manager and
- staff development

(Stott & Lawson 1997 cited in Hall 2002:24).

The distinction between women's and men's ways of leading is the subject of the next section. What is known about female leadership style and is it distinct from men's leadership style?

2.3.3 Female leadership style

The debate about whether or not women have a unique leadership style is an interesting area in leadership research. It is even more interesting for feminist researchers who are inclined to believe that women do indeed have different leadership styles than men. Perhaps it might be useful at this point to define leadership style.

Style has to do with how a person relates to people, tasks and challenges. A person's style is usually a very personal and distinctive feature of his or her personality and character. A style may be democratic or autocratic, centralised or decentralised, empathetic or detached, extroverted or introverted, assertive or passive, engaged or remote. Different styles may work equally well in different situations, and there is often a proper fit between the needs of an organisation and the needed leadership style (Cronin 1993:14). Hollander and Offerman (1993:69) characterise style as more than just typical behaviour, but as being "affected by such situational constraints as role demands, which are related

to the leader's level in the organisation and the expectations of followers. Style also is a function of the particular followers with whom the leader interacts."

Although it is a general belief that women have a different leadership style to men, some researchers (Blackmore 1999, Blackmore 2002, Rhode 2003) think it may be a problem to lump all women together and treat them as if they were a 'homogeneous group' without considering differences such as race, class, beliefs, ethnicity, age and sexual orientation (Blackmore 1999:57, Rhode 2003: 18). In other words, all women are not the same and as Rhode puts it, " sweeping generalisations about women's experience risk over-claiming and over-simplifying" (Rhode 2003:18). These 'sweeping generalisations' have to do with what Blackmore refers to as "the popular discourse about women's' leadership being flexible, democratic, valuing openness, trust and compassion, 'humane and efficient'" (Blackmore 1999:57). Osler's (1997) study cited by Hall (2002: 23-24) attests to the existence of differences in leadership priorities between black and white women educational leaders. For black women, the overall aim of educational management is the promotion of racial justice, whereas for white senior educators, the priority is running an effective school.

Whilst it cannot be denied that women have certain leadership qualities that are different from men's, such as the prevalent one of 'caring and nurturing', studies conducted so far have not yet provided conclusive evidence about the dichotomy between male and female leadership styles. What some studies have been able to reveal is that women seem to have styles of leadership better suited to certain contexts than others. For instance, Blackmore (1999:57) thinks that the popular discourse about women's style of leadership "is seemingly convergent with 'new' and softer management discourses that focus upon good people management as the new source of productivity in post-modern organisations".

This section focuses on women's leadership styles in the context of the changing culture of higher education. The position taken is that the changing culture is likely to have certain implications for leaders and managers, such as the need to adjust from specialist to generalist so as "to extend the range of their managerial skills and competencies, to

manage complex change at a time when their performance is under constant scrutiny and the resources they have to manage are constantly questioned and traditional career paths are crumbling" (Dopson & McNay 1996:31).

Women leaders and managers are likely to experience adjustment problems as well as the challenges of surviving and excelling in a more demanding work environment. They will need to adopt new leadership styles better suited to the changing culture. Women's leadership styles are considered to be more suited to contemporary demands for 'softer, more feminine' qualities. For instance, some studies have found that women leaders tend to have transformational leadership styles which would probably make them more suitable leaders in the new corporate, academic environment which emphasises team-work and where fresh values and visions are promoted and pursued. rather than committee-work where, as Dopson and MacNay (1996:27) argue, "positional power and the purse-strings are used to promote conformity to corporate objectives".

In Jones' (1997) study of African-American women executives, the leadership style most respondents described as their approach to leadership was transformational characterised by "participative management, empowerment, team building, vision creation and hands-on supervision" (Jones 1997:207). There seems to be a shift in the new management era towards more feminine styles of leadership which emphasise connectedness and collaboration. This augurs well for the inclusion of more women in management positions. Women managers are believed to be a new source of leadership talent because of their organisational skills, their ability to share, communicate, listen to and empathise with the needs of others (Blackmore 2002). Their more openly softer characteristics are thought to be critical to new managerialism in post-modern organisations. Women's nurturing nature places them in a better position than men to exercise these more spontaneously occurring 'soft skills' alongside the tougher skills already expected of managers in a male defined managerial world. The 'soft skills' involve "motivating staff, creating co-operation, re-defining organisational values and beliefs, and re-aligning management focus"(Karpin report 1995 in Blackmore 2002:60). What this characterisation of women means then, is that opportunities exist for more inclusive leadership in the changed culture of the university organisation. We may begin to see

more and more women leaders in the academe as universities take on a more corporate and less collegial structure as events in the external environment begin to shape and redirect the internal workings of the university.

2.3.3.1 The debate concerning a female style of leadership

This is a disputed issue as indicated in the introduction to this section. To reiterate, leadership studies have historically focused on male leadership styles. Traditionally only males were leaders, and the factor of gender in leadership did not exist. But with the emergence of, and increase in the number of female leaders, gender began to feature in leadership studies with several researchers attempting to understand the differences in leadership styles of men and women. Experimental and assessment studies carried out by Eagly and Johnson 1990, Eagly et al 1992, as well as Adler and Israeli 1988 had interesting findings. The results indicated that:

> Women employed a more interpersonal style of leadership than did men who were found to be more task-oriented. However in the real world of organisations, no differences were found in both the laboratory and the organisational settings, in other styles…women were typically more democratic than men employing a more participative work style. Male leaders in contrast, were identified as being more autocratic and directive (Middlehurst 1997:5-6).

Robbins et al (2001:89) describe a study which "showed that the culture of South African male leaders focuses more on performance, competition and winning, domination, control and directive leadership", whereas that of female managers emphasised collaboration, intuition, empowerment, self-disclosure and subtle forms of control. Robbins et al (2001) and other researchers such as Jones (1997) and Bass(1998) concur that the female approach to leadership exhibits higher levels of transformational leadership behaviour. In her study of the leadership development of African-American women college presidents in 1991, Jones found that when respondents were asked to describe their leadership style or their approach to leadership, they used concepts and terms that were related to participative management, empowerment, team-building,

vision creation and hands-on supervision, all of which indicate a more transformational than transactional leadership approach.

Bass (1998) contends that the tendency of women in leadership positions is somewhat more transformational than their male counterparts. Evidence from a New Zealand survey of two samples of leaders using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire(MLQ) found that women were rated higher for transformational leadership than their male counterparts. Other evidence gathered using the MLQ from four investigations between 1986 and 1992 supports the conclusion, according to Bass(1998:74), that "women display more transformational and less transactional leadership" than males. Women are also more likely to structure flat organisations and to emphasise frequent contact and sharing of information (Bass 1998). Bass gives various explanations for the male-female differences in transformational leadership (Bass 1998:77-8):

- differences may be due to the tendency for women to be more nurturing
- women tend to be more understanding of the needs of their followers and attempt to develop them to higher levels
- women tend to be more sensitive or 'feeling' – more interested in others than their male counterparts and more socially sensitive
- women highlight responsibility and care when reasoning morally, whereas men highlight rights and justice
- women tend to be less self-serving and authoritarian than men.

In the climate of transformation in higher education management, cultures, as well as organisational structures feminine qualities are being increasingly appreciated. Although male values of management and leadership still dominate in organisations (Middlehurst 1997), womanly merits are growing in importance as organisations now emphasise team-work, participation and empowerment of others. Feminine qualities "are congruent with some of the dominant values of the academic culture" (Middlehurst 1997:9). It seems therefore that contemporary management and leadership roles are highly suited to women because they have family-style skills of mutual trust and tolerance along with good communication skills (Walton 1997:81). It looks as if a more feminine approach to

leadership is required by today's flatter organisational structures which emphasise female qualities of caring and concern for others. Bass(1998:79) thinks that as "women maybe better suited for the organisational culture of the 1990's and beyond…we are likely to see rising numbers reaching higher levels of leadership and command…women are achieving parity with men in middle management positions." Good modern management as opposed to the "old macho management styles of the past generation" ought to be replaced with "creativity, communication, vision, symbolism and even love" (Walton 1997:81). Helgesen (2003) sees the ideals of leadership as the traditional 'lone hero' being increasingly replaced by a new kind of managerialism which values a combination of efficiency and humaneness. Women's leadership qualities and their propensity to be good communicators, to have good relationship skills, to be active and analytic listeners and negotiators define the new order. According to Helgesen (2003:33), they "will create an environment that meets the needs of the people who work today".

Since leadership in the academe is increasingly dependent on team work, the challenge for those in management and leadership roles is to become an "effective team leader". In the words of Robbins et al (1997:255), managers " have to learn skills such as patience, to share information, to trust others, to give up authority, and to understand when to intervene". However, many leaders are not equipped to handle the change to teams. It is not unreasonable therefore to conclude that the age old tendency to "control" is to blame for this inability. It might also be safe to assume that male managers are more likely than female managers to find it difficult to relinquish the "control and command" type of leadership in favour of the softer skills and values which are believed to be in demand in contemporary management. In academic organisations, the 'command and control' models of leadership have little or no importance as there are other more suitable models to substitute or neutralise this model (Middlehurst 1993). Robbins et al give a summary of the differences between male and female leadership styles:

> Women tend to use a more democratic leadership style. They encourage participation, share power and information, and attempt to enhance followers' self-worth. They prefer to lead through inclusion and rely on their charisma, expertise, contacts, and interpersonal skills to influence others. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to use

a directive command-and-control style. They rely on the formal authority of their managerial position for their influence base.

In today's organisations, flexibility, teamwork, trust and information sharing are replacing rigid structures, competitive individualism, control, and secrecy. The best leaders listen, motivate, and provide support to their people. And many women seem to do these things better than men. …The leadership styles women typically use can make them better at negotiating… (Robbins et al 2001:254).

2.3.3.2 Critique of female style of leadership discourse

Today's university, as any other organisation, requires a fully representative leadership force. Discourses of diversity, inclusiveness and critical mass should be taken seriously and not paid lip-service to. It has to be understood that women and men have distinctive perspectives to contribute, and this is one of the reasons, according to Rhode (2003:18), for the belief that "greater diversity in fact promotes effective leadership", which is why there is a need for a workforce with a diversity of backgrounds, experiences and styles of leadership. Citing (Donnell & Hall 1980) Wallace 1994, concurs with Rhode in her observation that both male and female managers have characteristics required for effective performance as managers. Like many other researchers interested in women's leadership issues, Rhode believes that "gender differences do make some difference, and they need to be registered in leadership positions" (p 18).

However, there is apparently no conclusive evidence that female leadership style is distinctively different to male leadership style (Rhode 2003, Blackmore 2002, 1999). Many of the claims made for a distinctive female leadership style either derive from anecdotal evidence or are based on samples or contrived laboratory studies (Rhodes 2003). Rhodes claims that large scale studies based on self-reports do not find any gender differences which suggest that women leaders demonstrate greater interpersonal skills and more participatory and democratic styles than male leaders' more directive and task-oriented approaches. A further concern about female leadership style is that it appears to be viewed as a 'collective' – as if all women have the same leadership styles regardless of

their differences. This kind of generalisation runs the risk of overlooking other variables that might interact with gender to produce differences in women's experiences of leadership. Such variables include race, ethnicity, age, class, sexual orientation, beliefs, experience and organisation power (Rhode 2003; Blackmore 2002, 1999). Maling (1990) reports on comments made by a woman manager working in a male dominated bureaucracy. The woman described her management style and how it was misjudged within a male dominated management paradigm. The management strategies frequently misjudged were: ▫delegation was misconstrued as abdication a nurturing approach to empowering staff mistaken for weakness and a lack of control.

These misjudgements may be taken as criticism of the female style of leadership, and this highlights the difficulty that may be experienced in introducing such leadership strategies in an environment which is accustomed to blatant authoritative demonstrations of power and control. Sutherland's (1994:178) viewpoint provides a helpful summary to the critique of female leadership style:

> to argue that there is an absolute difference between men and women in management styles would be to fall into precisely the error which has hampered women's progress in education and in society, namely that there is an absolute dichotomy between males and females in abilities and interests.

Perhaps what is needed is a balance between male and female leadership style – between masculine and feminine skills. Researchers refer to this balance of skills and styles as androgyny or an androgynous approach to management (Greyvenstein 1989; Bass 1998) and believe it is the ideal approach to adopt.

2.4 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN THE ACADEME– THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVES

Having looked at the leadership and management distinction and female leadership style, the discussion now moves onto academic leadership. The unit of analysis is the academic department head's leadership and management, roles and responsibilities. Leadership

and management are discussed in the context of the academe, thus distinguishing the use of these concepts from their use in organisational non-professional contexts. A brief theoretical overview of academic leadership and management in the academe is presented, followed by a more detailed examination of leadership and management at departmental level in the context of the changing culture of the university and the various demands placed upon leaders and managers. Aspects of departmental leadership discussed include role ambiguity, role conflict, exercise of power and leadership styles appropriate for an academic department as well as the role and responsibilities of the head of department.

2.4.1 Theoretical perspective

Universities in the UK, other countries and more recently in South Africa are faced with increasing demands and calls for institutional change. These calls for change involve restructuring of the entire system of university education from management, to curriculum and students. It involves:

- ‘ rightsizing’ and ‘downsizing’ of personnel and academic departments;
- adoption of business oriented management approaches;
- introduction of new and improved programmes geared towards meeting market demands and
- diversification of programme provision and student profiles.

All these changes demand effective leadership at institutional and departmental level. As Middlehurst (1993) puts it, “In times of change there appears to be both a heightened need for leadership and an expectation that those in senior positions will provide leadership” (p82). In other words, academic leaders are expected to provide direction in these times of change and to assist their colleagues achieve individual, departmental and institutional goals. Intellectual and managerial leadership become essential elements of effective leadership in the academe during the transformation era. Academic HoDs in particular find themselves having to exercise intellectual, academic and managerial leadership to enable successful restructuring to occur at departmental level. Intellectual

leadership, according to Middlehurst (1993), could be achieved in research, teaching and scholarship. In addition academic leadership would involve influencing the direction of academic activities and areas of study, while managerial leadership would involve planning and budgeting; organising and staffing, controlling and problem-solving (Middlehurst 1993).

A few definitions of leadership in the academic context might be helpful at this juncture. According to Bryman (1992), cited in Middlehurst (1993:68), leadership "is a process of social influence whereby a leader steers members of a group towards a goal". It is also "the ability to convince and persuade others to act on the basis of greater knowledge or competence, reasoned argument and fairness" (p75). Leadership "consists of establishing vision and direction, building commitment through communication and negotiation about collective goals and change" (p83). The leadership task in an academic context includes "challenging existing practices, modes of thought or academic areas that no longer fit the direction proposed" (p84). Leadership involves translating and interpreting the 'dual' language currently in use in the changing academic environment, namely, that of "cost-efficiency, value-for-money, audit, competition and performance indicators" as well as "intellectual development, value-for-life, professionalism, collaboration and reputation among peers". Leadership will "also involve taking hard decisions about those values and practices which should be retained and those which will need adaptation"(Middlehurst 1993:84). Leadership is necessary for guiding and developing disciplinary and teaching objectives as well as being relevant for the development and implementation of research programmes. Leadership is involved in the interpretation of values as well as the representation of collective purposes and interests. As much as in other organisations it is also required to facilitate, stimulate and focus individual and group effort in universities (Middlehurst 1993:86).

2.4.1.1 Leadership types – transformational and transactional leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership types have been selected in this section so as to highlight their application in a changing academic climate, as well as their appropriateness in the current state of university transformation. Some writers have noted

the distinction drawn by James McGregor Burns between transactional and transformational leadership and leaders and his coining of the terms “transformational and transactional” (Bass1981; Middlehurst 1993; Cronin 1993). What follows is a political definition of the two terms. The academic connotation will be discussed later. In Burns’ distinction, transactional political leaders are those who:

> approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another; jobs for votes or subsidies for campaign contributions. Such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in groups, legislatures and parties…the transformational leader…seeks to satisfy higher needs in terms of Maslow’s (1954) need hierarchy, to engage the full person of the follower.
>
> Transforming leadership results in mutual stimulation and elevation “that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents.” Transactional political leaders can be classified as opinion leaders, bargainers or bureaucrats, party leaders, legislative leaders, and executive leaders. Transformational leaders can be categorised as intellectual leaders, leaders of reform or revolution and heroes or ideologues (Bass 1981:20).

Although transformational rather than transactional leadership may be more desirable in the context of a changing environment, transactional leadership may be more suitable for a constant situation (Middlehurst 1993).

Bass (1998) takes Burns (1978) distinction further when he explains the difference between transactional cultures and leaders and transformational cultures and leaders:

> A transactional culture concentrates on explicit and implicit contractual relationships. Job assignments are in writing accompanied with statements about conditions of employment, rules, regulations, benefits, and disciplinary codes. The stories that make the rounds repeatedly, the jargon used, the values emphasised, the assumptions shared and the reinforcement systems in the transactional culture usually set a price for doing anything. “Everyone has a price.” Motivation to work is a matter or trade-offs of

worker effort in exchange for rewards and the avoidance of disciplinary actions. Commitments remain short term and self-interests are underscored.

The partly transactional organisation is an internal marketplace of individuals whose rewards are contingent on their performance. Additionally, management-by-exception is often actively practiced. Employees work independently. Cooperation depends on the organisation's ability to satisfy the self-interests of the employees. The employees do not identify with the organisation, its vision, or mission,. Leaders are negotiators and resource allocators in which the power and politics behind a request may be as important as its merit. Innovation and risk taking are discouraged.

In the organisational transformational culture, there is a sense of purpose and a feeling of family. Commitments are long-term. Mutual interests are shared along with a sense of shared fates and interdependence of leaders and followers. Leaders serve as role models, mentors, and coaches. They work to socialise new members into the epitome of a transformational organisation culture. Shared norms cover a wide range of behaviour. The norms are adaptive and change with changes in the organisation's environment. Emphasised are organisational purposes, visions, and missions. In this pure organisational culture, challenges are opportunities, not threats (Bass 1998: 65-66).

In short, the difference between a transactional and a transformational culture is that the former is characterised by reward for performance, short-lived commitments and strong self-interest. The latter culture is built around familial relationships where leaders and followers share a common destiny and a strong sense of interdependence, shared norms, including a shared organisational purpose, vision and mission.

Warren (1990) also uses Burns' (1978) distinction in his explanation of transactional and transformational leadership in an academic departmental leadership context. He says, "transforming leaders have a supportive, caring attitude, their questions have a positive ring , they encourage other people to excel and they reflect a grasp of mission, of common cause. They enhance the teaching role of leaders and they seek significant

change that represents the collective or pooled interests of teachers and followers"(1990:31).

If transformational leadership is an appropriate leadership strategy in the context of a changing organisational environment, this might be a useful application in the current context of the transforming university. Heads of academic departments would therefore do well to exercise a transformational leadership approach in dealing with the many changes currently taking place. However, as Middlehurst(1993:36) points out, a purely transformational approach may not work in the academic context as the conditions that constitute transformational leadership:

> are not necessarily present in universities where dual authority exists…where loyalty is as often to the discipline or department as to the institution; where motivation is intrinsic to the nature of academic work, not needing to be created extrinsically through presidential acts of leadership; and where positive responses to radical change are unlikely to be present.

What is suggested then is that transformational leadership may work in institutions:

> where direct contact with institutional leaders is possible and where a strong institutional identity can be formed, or in a crisis when either the financial viability or academic quality of the institution is perceived to be in jeopardy.

According to Middlehurst (1993), a case in point concerning transformational leadership is the current British context, where she says "changes in mission activities and individual roles are being called for…" (p36).
Lucas(1994) characterises transformational leaders as those who:

> create a shared vision, energise others by communicating that vision at many levels, stimulate others to think in different ways and to excel, give individual consideration to others, and provide an organisational climate that helps others to accomplish

> activities of value and feel appreciated… have followers who perform at a higher level and who are more satisfied with their work than other employees… (p47)

She characterises transformational heads of academic departments as those who:

> engage in an ongoing quest for quality, looking for opportunities to make things better…know[their] organisation's norms and culture very well but[are] also willing to risk challenging those norms when they are negative or dysfunctional…Learn from their mistakes…have the ability to create a shared vision…[empower others] enabling others to act…believe in people (p50-52).

A discussion based on the above characterisation of transformational leaders will take place later in the chapter, in relation to women and the exercise of leadership and power. The section below examines academic leadership in higher education with particular reference to the roles and responsibilities of HoDs.

2.4.2 Academic leadership at departmental level

2.4.2.1 Roles and responsibilities of the academic head of department.

Academic HoDs have numerous roles and responsibilities to perform during their term of office as academic leaders and managers. In their performance of the academic leadership role, HoDs are expected to promote and encourage excellence in teaching and research (Moses & Roe 1990) and to provide long term direction and vision for the department (Gmelch & Miskin 1993). As academic managers, they are expected to perform the maintenance functions of preparing budgets, maintaining departmental records, supervising non-academic staff and maintaining finances, facilities and equipment (Gmelch & Miskin 1993).

Today the new demands placed upon academic managers require that they combine intellectual competence with the managerial ability of corporate executives (Martin & Samels 1997). For many inexperienced HoDs, this may be one of the biggest challenges

of their careers. Greene (1996) explains that traditionally HoDs in the UK are professors of impressive academic standing and were appointed to office on the basis of their research standing. Their work consisted of light managerial functions which allowed other academics in the department "the intellectual freedom and autonomy to pursue their own academic research ends" (p2). But this is no longer the case. Although they are still appointed for their intellectual distinction and some for their administrative ability and the expectation that they will guide and develop research and teaching in their disciplines (Moodie & Eustace 1974 in Middlehurst 1993), their pre-eminent position and role as HoD has been challenged in recent years. This is attributable to governmental, institutional and financial pressures which have made the position of HoD more demanding. Greater and more effective managerial ability is required. As a result, HoDs are now elected or appointed on the according to criteria other than research expertise, and are expected to be both an efficient manager and academic leader. They are now expected to manage their departmental resources competently as well as provide capable academic leadership (Greene 1996). All of this has impacted on the role and function of academic HoDs, leading to ambiguity about their role and "where they fit into the institutional structure" (Greene 1996:4).

(i) The role of the head of department

HoDs have numerous other roles in addition to the new corporate responsibilities and liabilities resulting from new demands placed upon their role.

According to Bennett's (1997:125) definition, a role is "a total and self-contained pattern of behaviour typical of a person who occupies a social position. It is a set of *activities* [associated with an office] which are defined as potential behaviours [that] constitute the role to be performed…by any person who occupies that office" (Kahn et al 1964:13).
As academic leaders and managers in their departments, the position of HoDs as "first line administrators" makes them the "key link between the administration of the institution and department, academic staff, support staff and students (Bennett 1983; Hecht et al 1999). As the primary representative of an institution of a particular discipline the HoD "has to give the discipline its specific institutional shape, texture or colour"

(p13). In other words the onus is on the HoD to lead the way in 'moulding' the discipline to fit the required institutional specifications. To this end HoDs are expected to provide intellectual leadership in the re-structuring of the curriculum including the designing of new programmes in the department especially in the current climate of declining student numbers and dwindling fiscal and human resources. Hecht et al (1999) observe that the HoD's roles and responsibilities have changed from concern "for the individual welfare of faculty to creating successful working synergy among department faculty" as well as from "being an advocate for department desires to linking the work of the department to the broader institution and external audiences" (p36). Therefore as front-line manager's department heads have varied roles to play.

Hecht et al (1999:21-24) and Eriksson (1999:86-87) state:

- that HoDs are expected to:
- implement and carry out policy and the mission of the institution for the central administration
- represent the central administration to department members at the same time that they articulate the needs of the department members to the administration
- forward information between the administration and the department members and interpret and present information and arguments that accurately reflect the intent of each constituency to the other
- facilitate and encourage the work of the individual and of the group
- be a servant of the group who embraces the group's values and goals
- be a leader who inspires and leads personnel by creating a positive climate in the department
- attract resources by effectively representing the group of professionals and
- manage conflict especially during times of change when conflicting goals are often expressed
- that department heads are:
- the primary source of information about specific programs and daily operations

- primary agents of the central administration and chief advocates for the department
- the primary spokesperson and advocates for the academic department
- the only administrators with the requisite discipline training and vantage point needed to assess project quality and identify areas of needed change.

Seagren et al (1994:4) neatly summarise the role of the HoD when they say "the chair has a vital role to play in establishing the direction, facilitating the operation and determining the future of the unit". Even though the primary role of HoD may be that of administrator, HoDs are also expected to represent administrative and staff views and actions. This leads to ambiguity which in turn causes challenge, opportunity and role strain, tension and anxiety (Kahn et al 1964, Simpson 1984 cited in Seagren et al 1994). Consequently the task of HoD is characterised by uncertainty and tension. Role ambiguity and conflict are said to be significant aspects of being a head of a university department (Eriksson 1999).

(ii) Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity, according to Kahn et al (1964:77), "is often the unintended consequence of factors that are largely beyond the control of any organisational member…ambiguity has been described as growing out of problems in generating adequate and dependable information about issues which concern people in organisations." Role ambiguity occurs when roles are not adequately defined. Newly appointed HoDs are susceptible to role ambiguity as they are sometimes not entirely clear about how much authority they possess. Role ambiguity may also be caused by uncertainty regarding the precise duties and responsibilities attached to a post and about how one's work is to be evaluated (Bennett 1997).

(iii) Role conflict

A HoD may also experience role conflict. This occurs when the expectations of sub-ordinates and those of her/his supervisor clash. Superiors and sub-ordinates differ in their expectations of what supervisors should do and contradictory demands may stem from discrepancies between one's immediate work group and one's reference group. Professors may be caught between the demands of their cosmopolitan, professional reference groups and the role demands of their local campus for quality research, quality teaching and student relations (Bass 1981:218). Role conflict occurs when a person does not behave according to expectations attached to the position (Bennett 1997:125). For HoDs, the conflict in their functions stems from expectations to "act as agents of institutional management, required to deliver according to institutional objectives and to act as first among equals in a unit where all are engaged in a collective enterprise". Role ambiguity, for academic HoDs, stems from the nature of the position which, as Middlehurst (1993:138) says, "carries a dual identity as academic colleague and as manager/leader". Variance also stems from colleagues who expect advocacy and other forms of treatment, whereas senior administration expects allegiance to broader institutional goals and help in increasing productivity (Bennett 1998:135). Accordingly, a head of department may experience being neither an administrator nor a peer (van der Waerdt 1990). She/he may experience further role indecision in her/ his role of mediating between the administration and staff and dealing with their joint expectation of administration and staff as well as clarifying policies and correcting the mistaken thinking of one or the other. Real personal conflict is felt by HoDs between supporting peer colleagues and evaluating their performance (Bennett 1990). HoDs are expected to carry out the 'rector's will' with the formal responsibilities it may imply, and at the same time they are considered by the departmental employees to be 'one of us' (Eriksson 1999:92).

That role conflict and ambiguity are sources of stress and tension for HoDs, was confirmed by a study concerning the function of the university head of department carried out by Smith (2002) at two British universities. Smith found that HoDs' suffer from classic 'middle manager' tension when they have to represent the university to the

department and the department to the university, and the different expectations of the two constituencies (p296).

It might be useful to take a brief look at university management in order to clarify the position of the HoD within that structure. University management is essentially hierarchical in nature with the chancellor at the top followed by the vice- chancellor, the deputy vice-chancellor/s, deans of faculties and the heads of department. Within a faculty are various departments representing different disciplines and each department has a head who is responsible for running the department and ensuring that management's expectations and demands are met within the department. Normally these demands and expectations are communicated to the HoD via the dean of the faculty, who receives instructions from top management. What makes the head of department's position stressful is the need to be able to balance the demands and expectations of management with the demands and expectations of members of the department without compromising the position of either party. The HoD has to be seen as competent and effective by both management and department members.

Bennett (1983) points out that the uncertainty of the position has both psychological and political dimensions (p3). On the psychological level, it challenges established patterns of relationships. The HoD may experience resentment from friends and associates over her/his new responsibilities and authority to evaluate their work and assign them curricular duties. On the political dimension, the position's ambiguity places the HoD between staff and administration. Both demand loyalty and as an agent of both, the HoD runs the risk of alienating one or the other or both (Bennett 1983).

To conclude then Tucker's (1984) perspective leaves no doubt as to the ambivalent and complex nature of the role of the HoD:

> The chair is at once a manager and a faculty colleague, an advisor and an advisee, a soldier and a captain, a drudge and a boss…the chair must deal with the expectations and desires of the students in the department, the personal and professional hopes and fears of the department faculty members, the goals and

> priorities of the college dean, the often perplexing and sometimes shadowy priorities of central administration…(Tucker 1984:4-5).

In addition to experiencing role ambiguity and conflict, HoDs often feel powerless to act because of their belief that they have insufficient power and authority. The discussion that follows looks at the exercise of power by the academic head of department. In the UK, professors traditionally wielded considerable power as HoDs. They owed their authority to various sources such as academic reputation and rank, the potential for entrepreneurship or command of independent research funds and position and voice on policy-making bodies such as the university senate (Middlehurst 1993). They were key figures in the department and in the university and as such wielded a certain amount of power and influence and an expectation of leadership (Moodie & Eustace 1974 in Middlehurst 1993).

2.4.2.2 The head of department and exercise of power

Power as defined in Tucker (1981) is "the ability of an individual to effect a change in someone's behaviour a change that might not otherwise occur" (p44). Alternatively power is the "ability to influence others to accomplish goals"(Lucas 1994:59). Individuals in positions of leadership acquire power "by having access to or actually possessing certain resources that others desire" such as physical, economic, psychological or personal resources. In the academic context, power has a specific connotation. Citing Moodie and Eustace's (1974) conception of power, Middlehurst(1993) says, "power is viewed as the ability to give orders enforced by sanctions, by punishment or by control of rewards"(p29).

Power occurs in three forms:

- the most commonly known of which is *power over* (others), alternatively, explicit or implicit dominance

- the second form is *power to* (others), which allows individuals the freedom to act without restraint within certain areas of operations in the organisation through the sharing of power
- the third form is *power from* (others), alternatively the ability to withstand the power of other people by repelling their unwanted demands (Rosenbach & Taylor 1993).

An additional form of power is *power with* (others) which Bennett (1983) says comes from one's own personal resources and is usually far more important in academic departmental leadership than *power over* others. However a head of department can exercise power *over* others that come from the position itself. It must be stressed though that in academic settings, this form of power is not commonly exercised.

2.4.2.3 Sources of power for academic leaders and managers

There are various sources of power available to individuals in positions of leadership. In general there are five bases of power that may be available to leaders. Bass(1981:178-183) provides the following list:

- *legitimate power*: norms and expectations held by group members regarding behaviours appropriate in a given role or position
- *expert power*: perception that one possesses expertise in or relevant information about a task
- *reward power*: ability of one individual to facilitate the attainment of desired outcomes by others
- *co-ercive power*: ability to impose penalties for non-compliance
- *referent power*: esteem of one individual by others.

Three of these bases of power are considered to be relevant and most likely sources of power for leaders, managers and administrators in the academic context: *power from formal authority*; *position / legitimate power and personal/expert power* (Middlehurst 1993, Lucas 1994, Tucker 1984 & 1981, Hecht et al 1999). HoDs are expected to have

this influence at their disposal so as to motivate staff. Lucas (1994) argues that department heads can use this power to "influence the faculty to create a match between achieving departmental goals and attaining individual goals" (p18). According to Lucas (1994) and Hecht et al (1999), the significance of the types of power is contained in the subsequent discussion:

(a) Power of authority:

authority granted officially from a higher level in the bureaucracy is called 'formal authority'. It gives an individual the right to command resources or to enforce policies or regulations. The ultimate power from this source exists when a person to whom the authority is granted is able to make final decisions and firm commitments for his or her department without requiring additional signatures of approval. Any official authority chairs (henceforth HoDs) may have, has been delegated to them by their deans. Faculty (henceforth staff) members permit their behaviour to be influenced or affected by the department head if they believe that he/she has formal authority.

(b) Position power:

often referred to as legitimate power, is the authority individuals have simply because of their positions or functions. HoDs have strong position power when their judgement is given serious consideration in such personnel decision- making as the allocation of release time for research and of travel money, the funding of requests for equipment or computer software, the determination of who will teach which courses and at what time, and the assignment of graduate research fellows and clerical assistants. HoDs also have considerable power in allocating resources, determining curriculum, scheduling, and deciding the direction that a department will take (Lucas 1994:11). HoDs have the authority and responsibility to recommend salary raises, promotion, tenure and teaching assignments. They can also provide certain types of assistance to staff members that staff need but cannot provide for themselves such as helping them develop professional acquaintances, recommending them for membership in select professional associations, nominating them for executive positions, helping them obtain sabbaticals or funds for

travel to professional meetings. In addition HoDs' can help them make contacts leading to paid consulting jobs and writing letters of reference to other institutions in support of applications for new positions (Hecht et al 1999:33-4).

(c) Personal power:

derives from peers' respect for and commitment to the head of departments. It is informally granted to the head of department by the faculty members and depends on how they perceive him/her as an individual and as a professional. A HoD with a great amount of personal power is usually perceived by the faculty as possessing some of the following characteristics:

- fairness and even-handedness in dealing with people
- good interpersonal skills
- national or international reputation in the discipline
- expertise in some area of knowledge
- influence with the dean
- respect in the academic community;
- ability to obtain resources for the department;
- highly regarded by upper-level administration;
- knowledgeable about how the college operates;
- privy to the aspirations, plans, and hidden agenda of the institution's decision makers
- ability to manage the department efficiently

(Hecht et al 1999:34).

Personal power is earned and not delegated and the essence of personal power is credibility. A HoD who has earned credibility with internal and external constituencies stands a much better chance of being effective as a change agent, as his ideas and decisions will be accepted with less criticism and resistance than those of a HoD with low credibility. Credibility gives a head of department personal power to manage her or his responsibilities effectively (Hecht et al 1999).

(d) *Expert power* : is based on knowledge and control of resources. HoDs usually know better than staff how to get things accomplished in a college or university particularly how to do things that are not described in staff handbooks and other formal documents. Through meeting with the dean, HoDs also hear about plans for the college, changes that will take place, and other major and minor events before staff do. This knowledge, plus knowledge about and control over resources, such as knowing in advance about a source of additional funding for staff research, gives HoDs expert power (Lucas 1994:17).

As this discussion on types of power shows, HoDs within an academic context have more power and authority at their disposal than they suppose. Through the power granted to them officially, the power derived from the position they occupy, power stemming from their personality as well as that gained from their expertise and knowledge, HoDs can wield considerable influence within and without their departments. As primary change agents, HoDs are in a position to influence the direction that institutional change can take. Since the department is the 'powerhouse' of institutional academic activity it is the essential unit for driving academic transformation. The HoD is in a powerful position therefore to bring about departmental and institutional change. She/he is a valuable resource person who can be effectively utilised for the benefit of the institution as a whole. Though often overlooked, as a group HoDs may possess considerable power to determine the direction and quality of institutional change. In Bennett's (1998:135) observation, HoDs "are the academic leaders closest in the institution to the delivery of instructional services and can easily make a concrete difference … [and] a substantial impact on the intellectual tone of an institution".

2.4.2.4 Responsibilities of the head of department

HoDs have numerous responsibilities to perform, ranging from leading the department to managing the budget and resources. The range of responsibilities enumerated by researchers from different countries is, for the most part, similar. The ones listed here are based on the work of (Hecht et al 1999, Bennett 1998, Lucas 1994, Middlehurst 1993,

Gmelch & Miskin 1993, Bennett & Figuli1990, Moses & Roe 1990, Tucker 1984). The responsibilities are:

- leading the department while developing head of department survival skills
- motivating staff to enhance productivity and to teach effectively
- handling staff evaluation and feedback
- motivating staff to increase scholarship and service
- creating a supportive communication climate and managing conflict
- advancing diversity of ideas and people
- initiating programme review and development
- clarifying or recasting unit missions and supporting new and old staff
- assuring that the curriculum has integrity
- fitting the institutional mission as well as changing staff skills and abilities
- student matters
- institutional resources and support
- communication with external audiences
- managing finances and facilities
- data management
- managing teaching
- managing personnel
- promoting departmental development and creativity
- representing the department to the institution.

The HoD carries out all these responsibilities in her/his role as:

- staff developer;
- manager
- leader and scholar (Gmelch & Miskin 1993)
- personnel manager,
- source and distributor of resources;
- administrator;

- advocate and politician within the institution;
- lobbyist and negotiator outside the institution (Moses & Roe, 1990 cited in Middlehurst 1993);
- as master teacher, colleague, friend;
- problem-solver;
- committee member;
- counselor, and change agent (Robinson 1996).

Each of these numerous roles and responsibilities is performed by the HoD at some stage during her/his term of office. Although the performance of these roles and responsibilities may differ in extent and scope across disciplines, each of them "must in some way advance excellence in teaching and learning"(Robinson 1996:1). Of interest in this study is how academic women HoDs experience these roles and responsibilities.

2.4.2.5 Challenges of headship

Three major transitions experienced by new HoDs were identified by Bennett (1998:134). The first is a shift from specialist to generalist. The HoD has to change from focussing on her/his own discipline to representing a broader range of inquiries within the department. In other words she/he has to be advocate for different sub-disciplines. The second transition is a shift from being an individual to looking at whole departmental operation. The span of responsibility is expanded, and the HoD's expertise in her/his own subject matter is no longer sufficient in and of itself. She/he needs to cultivate other resources for leadership. The third transition involves supplementing staff loyalties to colleagues, the discipline and the department with loyalty to the broader campus enterprise. The challenge for the HoD then is to know about other inquiries, departments and schools, to be aware of the multiple contributions and activities of the institution and to situate the department within this larger context. The concluding section uses a case study of women academic leaders in Malaysia as an illustration.

2.4.3 Women academic leaders and their leadership experience

To recap, women leaders are believed to be more transformational in their leadership style than men. They also exercise power differently to men. This section takes this discussion further by highlighting experiences of women academic leaders based on a case study by Omar (1996). Omar points out that an academic leader in this contemporary age has to have academic and managerial skill as she has to open up avenues in research projects and introduce new courses and new degrees. These courses and new degrees have to be market driven. In order to offer students what they wish for, academic leaders must have the ability to produce course packages or to plan new degrees and diplomas which have a market value appreciated by the student (Omar1996).

Omar's study yielded several practical aspects of being an academic leader as perceived by the women who participated in the study. The PhD was seen as the desirable academic qualification enabling one to feel secure academically and have self-confidence to motivate those below to study further, do research, publish and so on. Management skill is necessary to lead a department as the person in charge has to manage staff, students and funds. When managing staff, (women) leaders must have an understanding of the cultural and religious sensitivities of the different cultural/ethnic groups. They need to be aware of prejudice amongst colleagues which may stem from a patriarchal culture, especially in the case of men, whereby they may undermine the woman's authority because they believe that a she should not be there in the first place. Female colleagues may show petty jealousy and resent being led by a person of their own gender. Women in academic leadership positions, however, generally have a positive attitude towards leadership. Leadership means making a sacrifice of one's time and energy for the benefit of others and the institution which they are usually willing to do. As a rule they have the interpersonal and communication skills which are seen as important in success of negotiations and in collegial relationships. They are considered to be typically empathetic which encourages mutual support.

There are advantages to women in academic leadership positions. The woman learns to put the organisation before her and motivates staff to do likewise; she learns to think and observe and thereby becomes more creative. Women leaders are also able to create, test and implement ideas efficiently. They are able to develop a broader knowledge of the world to familiarise themselves with government policies and changing trends in the public and private sectors as well as within the university itself. Women leaders' usually develop wider social and professional networks that are more reliable. In addition leadership positions make them more resilient persons.

Women leaders have a different attitude towards power than men do. Whereas men are seen to concern themselves with the power vested in them in leadership positions, women do not concern themselves with it to the same extent. They know they have the power "they do not flaunt it. If they exercise it, then they do it subtly"(Omar 1996:26). Women in positions of leadership are able to optimise different skills and assets developed while carrying out their academic duties. In the main they are able to understand and handle conflict better.

The style of leadership they exercise is mostly consultative and participatory. Women academic leaders tend to look at staff in terms of their duties and areas of specialisation rather than in terms of their gender. They are more likely to extend their natural tending and caring attitude to staff and students; they therefore encourage staff members to go for higher degrees whilst frequently senior women mentor younger ones, give advice and listen to problems.

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has considered various aspects of leadership in relation to academic women in general and to women in academic leadership positions in particular. Having looked at the impact of the 'new managerialism' on academic women, the discussion continued to include women in leadership by examining aspects of leadership study such as the distinction between leadership and management, and female leadership style. Kotter(1993) and Zaleznik(1993) take the view that there is a distinction between

leadership and management and leaders and managers respectively. The female leadership style was discussed within the context of a changing management culture and shown to be more suitable than male leadership style as it seems to be convergent with new and softer management discourses. Be that as it may, critics believe that evidence of female leadership style gathered so far is inconclusive as it is based largely on anecdotal evidence and results from contrived laboratory studies. Following on this discussion, the theoretical and practical aspects of academic leadership at academic department level focused on the roles, responsibilities, exercise of power and challenges of departmental headship. The role of HoD is fraught with ambiguity and conflict which are sources of stress for the HoD. New demands are placed on the HoD in addition to the existing requirements of the job. The HoD is now expected to be both intellectual and entrepreneurial. There are now more challenges in the job than ever before. Academic leadership now includes areas of corporate management such as budget oversight, marketing, personnel management and such like. A case study of women in academic leadership positions is used to illustrate how women perform some of their roles and responsibilities and how they exercise power differently to men. Women also tend to be more transformational in their leadership style than men and their feminine qualities of caring and nurturing are what may be required by organisational cultures of the future. However, at the same time, there is concern that in the academe the new organisational cultures (with their emphasis on business principles of management) may be problematic for academic women. There is therefore ambiguity in the fact that on the one hand there are discourses of inclusion and arguments for more feminine qualities of leadership, and on the other, the male dominated culture of competition and success still persists within organisations. From this perspective the ‘new managerialism’ may present an obstacle to women aspiring to be leaders.

The literature reviewed in this chapter has highlighted the debate concerning female leadership especially female leadership style. It may be concluded that women in management face the same dilemmas as their male counterparts. Nevertheless women encounter additional dilemmas because of their gender. Their leadership style may be viewed with suspicion if it does not conform to the accepted leadership schema, yet in this new age of management there are calls for the very female leadership qualities and

behaviour which is perceived as weak. Women managers and leaders can only help themselves and those under them by exercising the kind of leadership and management style that comes most naturally to them.

The next chapter explores the phenomenon of women's under- representation in academic leadership and management positions in higher education in South Africa and the UK, with particular reference to their statistical representation and the obstacles preventing their advancement.

CHAPTER 3 : WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains an exposition of the situation of women in higher education in South Africa and the United Kingdom. It presents a descriptive and a statistical overview of women's under-representation in professional and non-professional categories in higher education in South Africa and the UK. The obstacles which prevent women's advancement to positions of leadership and management are examined in-depth as well as the impact of racism and class. A list of possible strategies for dismantling and overcoming these barriers is given. The chapter ends with a summary and conclusion.

3.2 THE POSITION OF ACADEMIC WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN AND UK UNIVERSITIES

Following on the discussion of women in leadership and management in universities, this section focuses on the position of women academics in South Africa and the UK in relation to their statistical representation in the academic ranks and in academe in general. It is hoped that an appreciate of the proportion of academic women compared to academic men in the academic world, the pace of the advancement of women and their current numbers in positions of authority might be better comprehended. In the case of South Africa, the representation of academic women by race and rank might reveal the differential representation of these women in leadership and management in higher education.

3.2.1 Current position of academic women in higher education in South Africa.

The following account uses the work of Cooper and Subotzky (2001) as a point of departure. It describes and analyses student enrolment patterns and staff composition in higher education in South Africa during the period 1988 to 1998. Cooper and Subotzky highlight the changing trends in student enrolments and the higher education workforce

which are 'skewed' by race, gender and institutional type. They use the South African Post Secondary Education (SAPSE) data obtained from the Department of Education to describe and analyse these two aspects of the higher education system. However, for the purpose of this discussion, only academic women will be considered.

3.2.1.1 Staff composition

The subsequent table shows the percentage of professional and non-professional staff in the South African higher education system between 1988 and 1998.

Table 3.1: Higher education staff headcounts using professional and non-professional categories

Personnel category		1988		1993		1996		1997		1998	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
	Exec/Admin//Man	904	2%	1039	3%	1063	2%	1070	2%	1113	3%
	Instruct/Research	1177	32%	12835	1%	13160	31%	13505	31%	13558	32%
	Specialist support	1652	4%	2052	5%	2280	5%	2484	6%	2461	6%
Sub-total		14326	39%	15926	38%	16503	39%	17059	40%	17132	41%
Non-professional	Technical	2284	6%	2 583	6%	2436	6%	2 327	5%	2301	5%
	crafts/trades	1000	3%	970	2%	917	2%	940	2%	988	2%
	Non. prof. admin	6805	18%	8 582	21%	9830	23%	10420	24%	10333	25%
	Service	12767	34%	13 362	32%	12921	30%	12410	29%	11096	27%
Sub –total		22856	61%	25497	62%	26104	61%	26097	60%	24718	59%
Total		37182	100%	41 423	100%	42 607	100%	43156	100%	41850	100%

Source: SAPSE Table 3.3

In 1998, academic instruction/research staff made up the largest category of the higher education workforce (just under 32 %), followed by service staff (2%) and non-professional administrative staff (25 %); specialist support staff (6 %); technical (5 %). Executive administration and management (3 %) and crafts/trades (2 %). During 1988 to 1998, there were evident shifts in the racial composition of the overall higher education staff complement, with the number of African staff rising from 30 % in 1988 to 31 % in

1993 – and to 38 % between 1993 and 1998. The proportion of white staff members dropped from 55 % to 53 % in the same period and then more sharply to 47 % in 1998. Coloured staff members increased between 1988 to 1993, and dropped in 1998 to almost their 1988 levels. Their proportion remained at about 10 %. Indian staff increased during the same period and proportion remained at about 5 %.

Table 3.2: Professional and non-professional staff headcounts by race 1988, 1993 and 1998

Race	1988		1993		1998	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
African	11 262	30%	13 037	13%	14 378	38%
coloured	3 930	11%	4 420	11%	3 990	9%
Indian	1 505	4%	1 959	5%	2 350	5%
white	20 437	55%	21 915	53%	21 124	47%
other	48	0%	92	0%	8	0%
Total	37 182	100%	41 423	100%	41 850	100%

Source: Sapse Table 3.3

Although the university workforce increased between 1988 and 1998 from about 30,000 to just below 35,000, with the highest increase in the professional category, the racial composition was skewed. White staff was over-represented in all personnel categories except service staff, while the converse was true for African staff. The proportion of African staff in the executive/ management category increased from 3 % to about 15 % in the period 1988 to 1998. The proportion of Indian and coloured staff in the same category increased slightly while that of whites although declining from 94 % to 81 % remained predominant. These figures seem to point in one direction – that of a likely over-representation of one racial/cultural group in management positions (probably white male staff, followed by white female staff).

Table 3.3: Professional and non-professional staff headcounts by gender 1988, 1993 and 1998.

	1988		1993		1996		1997		1998	
Gender	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Male	23 538	63%	24 386	59%	24 270	57%	24 296	56%	23 224	55%
Female	13 644	37%	17037	49%	18 337	43%	18 860	44%	18 626	45%
Total	37 182	100%	41 423	100%	42 607	100%	43 156	100%	41 850	100%

Source: SAPSE Table 3.3

During the decade 1988 and 1998, the overall proportion of women staff increased from 37 % to 45 %, while that of male staff declined from almost 65 % to 55%.

As Cooper and Subotzky report, women were under-represented in most personnel categories except in the Specialist –Support staff and non-professional administrative category where they predominated (see Table 3.4). Even though there was a steady increase in the overall proportion of women in all other categories between 1988 and 1998, they were heavily concentrated in the non-professional personnel categories and highly under-represented in the professional categories particularly in the executive/management category. In the academic category, women increased from 27 % to 35 %, although mainly in categories traditionally associated with women such as librarians and administrative staff. This profile can be assumed to indicate that the trend might be similar today – with few women, of all races, among executive management staff.

Table 3.4: Representation of women as a percentage of staff by personnel category

Personnel category			Total staff	%women
1988	Professional	Exec/ Admin/Man	650	8%
		Instruction/Research	9 665	27%
		Specialist support	1 382	50%
	Sub-total		11 697	100%
	Non-professional	Technical	2 013	32%
		Crafts/Trades	889	8%
		Non-professional administration	5 709	71%
		Service	10 953	27%
	Sub-total		19 564	40%
1988 Total			31 261	36%
1998	Professional	Exec/ Admin/Man	790	19%
		Instruction/Research	10 442	35%
		Specialist support	1 881	59%
	Sub-total		13 113	38%
	Non –professional	Technical	1 905	34%
		Crafts/Trades	763	13%
		Non-professional administration	7 592	71%
		Service	8 618	34%
Sub-total			18 878	48%
1998 Total			31 991	44%

Source: SAPSE Table 3.3 adapted from Table 7.5 in (Subotzky 2001:210)

Another assumption, founded on the historically racially determined institutional types and racially stratified workforce, could be, that given the relatively low numbers of

African academic personnel in both historically advantaged universities (HAUs) and historically disadvantaged universities (HDUs), a correspondingly low number of female academic heads of department. It would not be surprising therefore to encounter a university with very few or no African heads of department.

Table 3.5: Professional and non-professional staff headcounts in the HAUs and HDUs during 1998.

		African	coloured	Indian	White	other	Total
		No. %	No. %	No. %	No. %	No. %	No. %
HAU	Professional	500 %	106 1%	217 2%	8859 91%	4 0%	9686 100%
	Non-professional	6112 25%	1819 13%	955 3%	5263 39%	2 0%	13651 100%
HDU	Professional	1809 43%	290 7%	434 10%	1667 40%	8 0%	4208 100%
	Non-professional	5269 73%	825 11%	569 8%	570 8%	2 0%	7235 100%
Total		13690 39%	3040 9%	1675 5%	16359 47%	16 0%	34780 100%

Source: SAPSE Table 3.3

The figures in Table 3.3, reported by Cooper and Subotzky (2001:214), seem to support the assumption made earlier. In 1998, Africans comprised 5 % of academic staff in the HAUs in contrast to 92 % of white people. The proportions of Africans and white people in HDUs in the same period were almost equivalent being 42 % African and 41 % white people. Whereas Africans formed 78 % of service staff in the HAUs and 83 % in the HDUs, white people only formed 4 % and 0 % of personnel in these categories respectively.

In universities in 1998, the distribution of academic staff was found to be 19% professors, 10% associate professors, 28% senior lecturers and 43% lecturers or below. There were higher numbers of senior ranks at the HAUs and greater numbers of lecturers and below at HDUs. Predictably, the numbers of academic women in the higher ranks were disproportionately lower than that of their male counterparts. Men constituted 90% of

professors, 78% of associate professors and 67% of senior lecturers. Women were clustered at the lecturer level and below. This apparent inequity is still prevalent even in the 21st century. Although there have been significant improvements in some universities due in part to employment equity, the gender gap in academic ranks and positions of leadership and management is still unacceptably wide. However, the statistics presented here are limiting as they reflect a position prevalent almost a decade ago. The situation has most likely changed now and therefore remains an issue for further research.

3.2.2 The position of women academic staff in the UK

The situation of women academic staff in the UK and South Africa leaves plenty of room for improvement. For a long time academic women in British universities have been under-represented. Although their numbers have increased over the years, they are still in the minority in senior academic and administrative positions. In a Hansard Society document entitled 'Women at the top 2000: Cracking the public sector glass ceiling', Karen Ross provides a statistical picture of the advancement of women across the higher education sector in senior lecturer/researcher posts and as professors over the period 1995/6 and 1998/9.

Table 3.6: Women in higher education by senior appointment, 1995-1999.

	1995/6		**1998/9**	
Post	Total	% Women	Total	%Women
Professors	8649	8.6	10261	9.8
Senior-lecturers and researchers	16050	8.3	19599	21.9
Total	24699	8.4	29860	17.7

(Source: Women at the Top 2000: Cracking the glass ceiling taken from Higher Education Statistics Agency individualised returns)

Women accounted for 8.6 % of professors in 1995/6 and 9.8 % in 1998/9. Only 8.3 % and 21.9 % in 1995/6 and 1998/9 respectively were senior lecturers and researchers,

bringing the overall percentage of women in senior academic positions to 8.4 % and 17.7% between 1995/6 and 1998/9 (Ross 2000:15).

Saunderson (2002) provides a clear picture of the historical and current position of academic women in British universities. She notes that in 1931 women comprised only 13 % of teaching staff…a figure which remained constant from the 1970s right up until the 1970s (Saunderson 2002:377). But following the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act which saw an increase in the number of UK universities and the concomitant establishment of more academic posts, the position of women improved from 13 % to 35 %.

Despite this increase in academic staff representation, women by and large occupy 25 % of all senior positions in UK universities and hold 53 % of all part-time academic posts (Saunderson 2002:377). Of those employed as full-time staff, almost one third (about 31 %) are on fixed term contracts, which places them at a disadvantage financially and in terms of career advancement. In terms of vertical segregation "women comprise 23 % of senior lecturers and only 10 % of professors as figures from the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) 2000 indicate (Saunderson 2002). In terms of career advancement, statistics for 2002 from the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education(NATFHE) showed only 13 % of all fulltime UK female academics progressing to senior lecturer level compared to 22 % of males and that only 4 % of all female academics progress to the level of professor compared to 14 % males (Saunderson 2002:378). From 1994-95 to 1998-9 the overall proportion of female professors in higher education institutions increased by 2.6 % only. There are even fewer women at the higher levels of university management and scholarship. Out of 76 university status institutions, there were only five women vice chancellors and only four women heads of 17 general colleges of higher education. These figures are provided by Woodward (2000:44) and cited in Saunderson (2002:378). As in the situation of the South African higher education, inequities still exist in UK universities despite several years of the existence of Equal Opportunities and equal treatment legislation and the Equal pay Act. As Saunderson sees it, all this amounts to "little more than 'lipstick on the gorilla'".

It is evident from the statistics provided above, that in both SA and the UK, women still lag behind men both in their representation in the universities and in senior academic positions and ranks. What is even more obvious in SA universities is that the representation is racially skewed, with white male and female academics better represented in senior positions. This seems to point in one direction – that of an over-representation of one racial/cultural group in management positions (most likely, white male academics, followed by white female academics). The racially skewed numbers of academic personnel in both HAUs and HDUs, means there would be a correspondingly racially skewed number of academic HoDs at these institutional types. It would not be surprising therefore to encounter a university with very few or no African heads of department. Although there have been significant improvements in some universities due in part to employment equity, the gender gap in academic ranks and positions of leadership and management is still unacceptably wide in both countries. Although their numbers have increased over the years they are still in the minority in senior academic and administrative positions.

However, they seem to have made more progress than their South African counterparts. But again, as with the South African position, the data are limited in that the statistics presented here are almost a decade old, and the position in the UK may well have changed by now.

3.3 WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP : OBSTACLES TO THEIR ADVANCEMENT

Academic women encounter numerous obstacles as they advance to positions of leadership and management in the academic world. In this chapter the author examines the different categories of barriers academic women face in their climb to the top. Strategies for overcoming these are recommended. The literature review reveals (Brooks 1997, Powney 1997, Brown 1997, Sutherland 1985) that academic women in the UK, United States and other countries experience obstacles to advancement. Academic women in South Africa also face obstacles to their advancement, although only very few

studies have, so far, documented this. Greyvenstein (1989) discusses impediments facing women in educational management and what can be done to overcome these. She investigates this problem from the perspective of women principals in the UK, South Africa and the United States of America. Petersen and Gravett (2000) report on the experiences of women academics at one South African university.

The current state of higher education transformation; the institutional mergers and the additional demands placed upon institutional leadership and management make it necessary to explore the factors that may explain the slow advancement of academic women's careers in higher education – particularly academic women middle-managers. It is established that women are grossly under-represented in senior positions at universities and continue to be under-represented even in the wake of equal opportunity policies such as 'employment equity' in South Africa and equal employment opportunities and equal pay act in the UK. In South Africa, concern regarding the under-representation of women in top positions in academe is expressed in a proposal to the Council on Higher Education (CHET) concerning activities supporting the development of women in higher education. The proposal calls for an increase in the number of women in senior and/or decision-making positions in academic and professional life. In the UK some committees and commissions have been established to look into the problem of the tardy advancement of women and to remove existing barriers. For example, the Hansard society established a commission in 1989 which in turn launched Opportunity 2000 (Hansard Report 1990); the CVCP published guidelines on equal opportunities in employment and established a Commission on University Career Opportunity (Brown1997:109). Meyerson and Fletcher(2003) explain that inequity is rooted in the entrenched male definition of organisational leadership. In their view:

> The barriers to women's advancement in organisations today have a relatively straightforward cause. Most organisations have been created by and for men and are based on male experiences. Even though women have entered the workforce in droves in the past generation, and it is generally agreed that they add enormous value, organisational definitions of competence and leadership are still predicated on traits stereotypically associated with men: tough, aggressive, decisive. And even though

> many households today have working fathers and mothers, most organisations act as if the historical division of household labour still holds – with women primarily responsible for matters of the hearth. Outdated or not, those realities drive organisational life (p232).

3.3.1 Overview of statistics on women's under-representation

It is evident from the literature that advanced countries such as the UK, the USA, and Australia are concerned about the under-representation of women at the top in higher education. Citing Kennedy (1995), Jackson (2002) notes that the absence of women in the highest echelons may be the result of the discrepancy between "equal opportunities policies and practices and the patriarchal system on which Higher education institutions are based" (Jackson 2002:28). Heward (1996) puts forward a similar argument to Jackson's when she asserts that the "hegemonic masculinities" of higher education institutions ensure that policies to redress discrimination remain policies and are rarely translated into action. Moreover, it is the "hegemonic masculinities" which privilege men and disadvantage women, resulting in more men being promoted to senior levels while very few women make it to the top.

Women professors are still outnumbered by their male counterparts even in advanced countries such as the USA and the UK. Jamieson (1995) reported that in the Unite States higher education, 15% of women were full professors; 28% associate professors and 40% assistant professors. A report in a South African University's weekly newspaper, stated that only 8% of full time professors and 19% of fulltime associate professors were women in 1999. A gender audit carried out in the UK in 1998/9 revealed that only 9.8% of the professorial complement in that country's higher education institutions was women (Halvorsen 2002).

Although the number of women in top administrative positions in South African universities showed an improvement between 2000 and 2002, the highest number of women was and still is clustered at the bottom of the administrative hierarchy. Out of a total possible number of available senior and top positions (1647), only 217 (13.2 per

cent) were occupied by women (Zulu 2003:101). These figures indicate a gap in the representation of women in top level management structures in universities in South Africa. The situation is similar in the UK, where despite the existence of formal equal opportunities policies and gender monitoring systems, there are hardly any women vice-chancellors, pro-vice-chancellors, college principals or faculty deans. According to a 2001 study, conducted by Forster in a UK university, more men than women held professorial positions. Even where women were better represented, they had not increased their representation at senior levels and although women in UK universities make up 33 per cent of all academic staff - men hold 85 per cent of professorial positions.

3.3.2 Explanations advanced for the under-representation of women in management and leadership positions.

A number of explanations have been put forward to account for the continued under-representation of women in positions of seniority in organisations. This section takes a look at a cross-section of the obstacles as discussed in the literature. Although it would be useful to distinguish the barriers according to different categories, such a categorisation may fail to capture the all encompassing nature of some of these barriers. Suffice it to say that common practice is to explain them in terms of their nature, namely organisational, traditional and attitudinal.

The problem of female under-representation in senior positions in higher education management is not attributable to a single set of factors, but to a whole cycle of discrimination at all levels. In the UK, the absence of women in senior positions in tertiary education is attributed to, among others, the slow growth of women students among the undergraduate population, and the persistence of outdated attitudes about women's roles and career aspirations (Hansard Society Report 1990). Heward (1996:12), however, argues that even with the steady rise in women at the undergraduate level in UK institutions, there has been very little change in the number of women above the level of lecturer. She contends that it is a mistake to assume that the proliferation of women at lower levels would automatically result in an increased proportion of women at the top. Her conclusion is that an investigation of the "problem of women and careers in higher

education must focus on the gender and power relations underlying the stubborn resistance of senior positions to change" (Heward 1996:12).

3.3.2.1 Commonly identified barriers

Barriers exist at many levels, the details of which will be discussed here. Impediments may occur at the personal/psychological; socio-economic/cultural and structural/systemic levels. Forster (2001) and Petersen and Gravett (2000) identified *structural*, that is, recruitment and selection policies; career development and promotion policies; institutional male power and the roles of women academics as well as *cultural* barriers to women's progress to senior positions in the academic world. This section attempts to give an overview of the nature of these barriers as they affect academic women.

(a) Personal/psychological /attitudinal barriers

Personal barriers include attitudes – outdated (male) attitudes about women's roles; career aspirations and ability to lead/manage; poor self-image and lack of confidence in one's ability to succeed in higher office; lack of commitment and a lack of willingness to take risks. It is also suggested that women's 'fear of success' may prevent them from putting themselves forward for promotion. Women are said to avoid putting themselves forward but rather to wait until they are 'discovered' and recommended for promotion. Sutherland's (1985) research on women teaching in British universities revealed that women seem to be "less strongly motivated than men to apply for university posts and strive for professional advancement" (p41). When they do apply they frequently lack self-confidence even though they may be better than their male peers. This is usually due to prevailing prejudicial attitudes towards women who seem ambitious and also to their lack of expectation to succeed. Diminished expectation of success is generated by many factors. In a climate of racial, ethnic and gender discrimination, a woman (or man for that matter) may probably not expect success because she (he) may not be a member of the dominant group. Soldewell's (1979) observation is that women are their own worst enemies as they undersell themselves and those who have made it on their own do not understand or care to understand that the opportunities they had are not always available

to all women. Others enjoy the status of ‘lone star’ or ‘token’; yet others are embarrassed to be associated with women’s groups and some are “professionally seduced by fringe relationships with the old boy’s network” (p147).

(b) Traditional roles

Women are also faced with tensions between their traditional roles of wife and mother and their career. This is known as ‘role-conflict’. It is a situation where a woman is torn between her 'career and her family' (Tinsley 1984, Greyvenstein 2000, Petersen Gravett 2000, Heward 1996).

Consequently a woman’s aspiration to leadership and management may be hampered. Guilt at having to pay more attention to her career rather than to family, partly because societal norms dictate that her first responsibility is to her family, also plays a part. In many instances, married women have to compromise their own promotion prospects and interrupt their careers because of their husband’s job when they move with him from place to place (Sutherland 1985). Social mobility (moving from place to place) then becomes another hurdle for women attempting to be upwardly mobile in their own careers.

(c) Structural/systemic explanations

Institutional or organisational cultures have been found to present obstacles to women's advancement (Kettle 1996, Astin & Davis 1993). Definitions of organisational culture abound in the literature on organisational theory. Hoy and Miskel’s (1978: 246) definition explains organisational culture as "symbols, ceremonies and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of that organisation to its employees." Another definition views organisational culture as shared assumptions, norms, values and beliefs of an institution which define and shape “what is seen as acceptable and unacceptable behaviour…a combination of values, structure and power that has implications for every aspect of an organisation’s operations and external relationships” (Dopson & McNay 1996:21). It is these subtle shared beliefs of how things should be in

the organisation that make it difficult for women to succeed despite the existence of formal policies to redress inequalities (Kettle 1996). Accordingly, if an institution's culture is based on a traditionally patriarchal view of what is desirable, then it is inevitable that women will be disadvantaged.

(i) Selection, hiring and promotion procedures selection and hiring

The selection and hiring practices of an institution could be a barrier for women wishing to advance to senior positions in academe. For instance, the pool from which candidates are drawn and the composition of the search committee may disadvantage women. Bernstein (1984) and Kaplan et al (1984) point out that academic administrators are traditionally drawn from the professorial level and that search committees are usually composed of senior men. These senior men are often more concerned about the woman's "ability to fit in with the existing organisation than they are about her skills, accomplishments, and vision" (Kaplan et al 1984:68-9). Moreover, women candidates are mostly dependent on recommendations from men as few women academics are available at the level where recommendations are influential. The scarcity of women academics at these senior levels also means that the interviewing committee will most likely consist of men only, thus putting women in the possible situation of being negatively judged by those of the opposite sex (Sutherland 1985). The tendency to stick to traditional qualifications and to recognise only traditional ways of acquiring those qualifications may restrict employees' advancement within an organisation (Fine 2003). To assist women to advance within the academic milieu therefore, it may be necessary to redefine qualifications and to recognise "non-traditional ways of acquiring the requisite skills" (Fine 2003:311). In other words, universities would do well to recognise women's non-traditionally acquired skills and competences for promotion purposes such as managerial skills acquired through women's experience of home management – nurturing, budgeting, communication, conflict resolution, counselling, negotiation, team-work and collaboration – as well as those acquired through self-study and community work. In recruiting women candidates for positions of authority, it might help to consider a redefinition of qualifications to include those favourable to women.

A common hiring practice in today's universities, which is more likely to disadvantage women than men, is casualisation – hiring of casual staff. Blackmore (2002) and Saunderson (2002) take a critical look at the rise in 'casualisation' and 'contractual segregation' which effects career advancement. Blackmore gives a description of Australian universities which have experienced a rise in casual staff since 1996. This mostly affects women. These women, according to Blackmore (2002:433), are a "marginalised workforce servicing the hardcore of tenured, largely male, academic workers and researchers…[with] little access to an academic career that is contingent upon developing overtime a sustained research profile and a capacity to innovate and design courses rather than just 'deliver'[them]". It is a practical reality that academics employed on a casual basis have limited career advancement opportunities such as professional development and other similar benefits. They are thus less likely to apply for promotion. Even those employed on contract basis such as 'fixed term' have limited opportunity to build up an academic profile required for promotion purposes. This privilege belongs to tenured or permanently employed staff. Saunderson (2002:379) points out that 31 per cent of all UK women academics are employed on fixed term contracts. This has obvious implications for the career advancement and promotion of these women to senior positions. It means that a good percentage of women are already disadvantaged by their employment status. In addition Brooks (1997) notes that academic women in research posts are disadvantaged by the structure of research funding and by the contractual nature of posts. The career structure for those in teaching/ research provides the opportunity for career development and promotion…in contrast to women in 'contractual positions'. She points out that "contractual research by its very nature effectively excludes different groups of academic women from the career and promotion framework" (Brooks 1997:60).

Promotion procedures

In addition to selection and hiring practices, the procedures and criteria used in promotions may present obstacles to women's advancement. As early as 1979, Soldewell observed women in higher education administration and noted that even with their competence, diligence, talents and contributions, women should not expect to be

recognised and promoted. The promotion system for them seems to operate just below the highest levels of administration and decision-making. There are fewer competent and well qualified women managers who are accorded the highest positions than are available for executive leadership (Soldewell 1979). The position does not seem to have altered much even in the twentieth and twenty first century. This is apparent in the ensuing discussion.

Researchers such as Forster (2001); Sutherland (1994) and Brown (1997) note that promotion systems still largely rely on the publication records of candidates for appointments and promotions, although the stated criteria include "excellence in teaching , administration and research"(Brown 1997:115). Women are thus promoted less often than men and this is hardly surprising given their multiplicity of roles. This ensures that less time is available for academic work and career development after homemaking; child-caring responsibilities; teaching and pastoral care. The greater demand on academic women's time hinders research productivity and reduces chances for progress. Brooks' (1997) study of academic women also echoes the same sentiments regarding the productivity and promotion of academic women. She found that workload and the number and range of responsibilities held were directly related to women's reduced productivity and chances for promotion. A study of differences in male and female research productivity produced evidence that time taken up by teaching, administration and family commitments impeded women's research productivity to a greater extent than it did for male academics (Brown 1997).

In some cases criteria for promotion are either not clearly defined (Sutherland 1985) or are poorly distributed to everyone or they "operate in a fragmented, piecemeal and inappropriately confidential manner" (Brown 1997:116). For instance, as Mares (1990:73) puts it, the interpretation of what constitutes a 'good' research topic and a 'proper' journal remain hidden and can therefore "militate against the selection of a woman". An inadequately developed research and publications record may be a serious barrier to development especially in cases where this criterion is, in Sutherland's (1994:177) terms "the major –sometimes the only criterion for advancement." Another promotion barrier for women is who makes the recommendation for promotion. Often the

onus is on the head of department to make a recommendation. Ryder (1996) and Brown (1997) see this as a potential problem. Brown believes promotions made on the basis of recommendations by a head of department have the "potential to suffer from the exercise of local interests in the hands of (for the most part) under-trained managers." Ryder thinks that chances for promotion may be blocked for certain people if the head of department does not put their names forward or argue their cases. Of course this may apply to male and female academics, but because frequently men are heads of department, chances are that they would naturally put forward names of male academics and may thus be less inclined to argue for the promotion of a female academic. In the case of a female manager, her chances of progress to the next level of management may be jeopardised by expectations of excellence. She may be expected to perform far better than her male counterparts to be considered for promotion.

(ii) Research productivity

It is well-documented that research and publication is an important criterion for career advancement for academics. In many universities teaching and community service do not seem to count as much in decisions regarding promotions to senior academic ranks, particularly the professoriate. Women academics however are often more heavily involved in teaching and service than in research.

In South African universities, men are four times more likely than women to be professors and three times as likely to be in the senior lectureships. Petersen and Gravett (2000) attribute the slow progress of female promotion to the organisational structure and culture of institutions of higher education. In their study of women's academic experiences at a South African university, Petersen and Gravett identified these constraints to women's advancement: lack of suitable female academic role models and mentors; existence of covert or subtle discrimination; perpetuation of the 'glass ceiling' and the practice of 'gate keeping'. This notion of 'gate keeping' is echoed by Bagilhole (2002) who observes that men continue to dominate in the area of research and publications at many institutions of higher learning and so oversee as 'gatekeepers' in the peer review process. In a 1998 report on research involving fifteen historically

disadvantaged institutions (HDIs), Biraimah, a consultant for Development Alternatives inc. noted that "staff development depends on reasonable teaching loads; adequate research support and a fair and equitable promotion scheme; and that these issues are even more critical to women, who experience fewer opportunities than their male counterparts" (Biraimah 1998:5).

Obstacles to research impede women's development. It is a consequence of women's diminished access to research funding and little or no access to the formal and informal research networks typically enjoyed by men in academia (Bagilhole 2002). In her 1993 study, Bagilhole found that women were less likely than men to apply for research funds or to be successful when they did apply. She found that nearly half of the women in her study were less successful than their male counterparts in obtaining external funding. Jackson (2002:20) concurs with Bagilhole that research has been (until recently) an exclusive male preserve, where men determine what constitutes 'good research practice' and what research is good enough to merit promotion. Jackson believes that "what determines *'good research practice'* is guided by a male academic culture and institutional discrimination against women." She points out that in the UK the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) may discriminate against women lecturers who are less likely than men to have their work included. Jackson attributes this partly to the following:

- that women's work is focused more on teaching than research (Astin & Bayer 1979, Simeone 1987, Wilson & Byrne 1987, Johnsrud & Wunsch 1994, Brooks1997)
- that women find themselves with more administrative and pastoral work and little time for research
- that they tend to engage in interdisciplinary research which may not be recognised by the RAE for promotion purposes.

Astin and Bayer's 1979, 1980 and 1982 studies yielded interesting results regarding the factors which facilitate and inhibit women's research productivity. They found that structural factors such as lack of time and resources were inhibitors, whereas, among

others, access to research funds, motivation and support of family and spouse were facilitators.

In the U.S. Johnsrud and Wunsch's (1994) exploratory study of the perceptions of senior and junior female faculty members regarding the barriers to success experienced early in the academic career, revealed that the obstacles of most concern for junior women were writing, productivity, tenure clock, research support and career goals. For senior women they reflected concerns about career, personal and socio-economic issues (Johnsrud & Wunsch 1994).

In a study of academic women, Simeone (1987) found that women tended to publish less because of their heavy involvement in teaching rather than research. Ten years later, Simeone's findings were corroborated by Brooks' 1997 study of academic women in New Zealand institutions. Brooks found that female academic staff have "less time to write and publish, research and present papers at conferences" as a result of their greater involvement in teaching-related activities than their male counterparts.
Biraimah (1998) confirms the same concerns about women in HDI's. She believes they face additional challenges in advancing their careers and obtaining promotion. These challenges include family responsibilities, heavy teaching loads, and lack of, among others, self-confidence, assertiveness, mentoring and role models. Studies by other educational researchers in South Africa found the same challenges. For instance, Mathipa and Tsoka's (2001) investigation of possible barriers to the advancement of women in the education profession, revealed similar obstacles as well as additional ones. These included discrimination; demotion; poor performance; less career orientation and poor self image.

(iii) Equal opportunities policy (EOP)/employment equity act (EEA)

In her article on the UK Equal Opportunities Policy, in which the position of women in higher education is examined, Brown (1997) questions the efficacy of equal opportunities in ensuring the complete removal of barriers to their advancement and ensuring their full participation and contribution to higher education especially at senior levels. She lists

numerous barriers to women's academic careers which exist in higher education. Among these is the impediment of ‘convention and stereotypical expectation’ whereby jobs are segregated into 'women's work' and 'men's work'. This presents a hurdle for a woman wishing to make inroads in an area perceived as traditionally male. Another hindrance is that women's suitability for a particular post or promotion is often based on whether they are considered to be committed to the job or on the perceived relevance of their experience. In many cases, Brown contends, these judgements may not be related at all to the post in question (Brown 1997). She lists the following as the main barriers to women's advancement:

- women graduates are either not attracted to or fail to enter academe in comparison with male graduates; there are also suggestions that women drop out more often at an early stage in their careers
- women find it harder to enter the supportive networks which provide access to mentoring and research opportunities
- women's research productivity, particularly in the early years of their career, may be restricted by childcare demands
- women tend to over-perform in the areas of teaching, student support and administration, to the detriment of their research activity
- women are less likely to be appointed or promoted at all levels
- academic careers are characterised by strongly held age norms.

(Brown 1997:117)

Brooks (1997) found that a general disillusionment as regards the effectiveness of EOP practice was evident from many academic women involved in her study. She noted that “a large number of academic women expressed concern about the gulf between policy and practice” (Brooks 1997:60). Brooks pointed out that many respondents indicated that the existence of an EOP may conceal unfair and discriminatory practices; without an accompanying set of practices, may merely be a public relations exercise. Soldewell (1979) also made a similar observation about equal opportunities/affirmative action policies which, according to her, often pay lip service and end up employing ‘the uniquely qualified male’.

On a positive note, Rhode (2003) shares her perspective on equal opportunities and argues that:

> …there are strong reasons to believe that greater diversity [in the workplace] in fact promotes effective leadership [and these reasons are that] women represent a substantial and growing share of the pool of talent available for leadership. Organisations that create a culture of equal opportunity are better able to attract, retain, and motivate the most qualified individuals. Reducing the obstacles to women's success also reduces the costs of attrition. It increases employees' morale, commitment and retention and decreases the expenses associated with recruiting, training and mentoring replacements. A further rationale for ensuring equal access to leadership positions is that women have distinct perspectives to contribute. In order to perform effectively in an increasingly competitive and multicultural environment, organisations need a workforce with diverse backgrounds, experiences, and styles of leadership" (Rhode 2003:18).

(iv) Educational credentialing

Lack of educational credentialing is cited as an inhibitor to women's progress. Tinsley (1984) acknowledges that the doctoral degree is important to advancement in higher education administration. Yet far fewer women administrators hold it compared to male administrators. Data from the Leaders in Transition Study of administrators' careers and other studies (Moore 1984:12) lead to the conclusion that "a doctorate is the baseline credential for all positions in college administration above entry level", yet fewer than 30 per cent of the female respondents held a doctorate during the time the study was conducted. In a survey of 40 professionals who were requested to describe their career experiences Miller and Vaughn (1997) found that appropriate preparation and credentials were crucial for performance and career advancement. Women, to a greater extent than men, have to rely on their academic achievements to be recognised and to become visible (Krais 2002), whereas men are more likely even get into executive office without "distinguished teaching and research careers" (Dawson 1997:194). From this, it seems

that for women to make it, they have to possess superior credentials or even be overqualified for a position for which they will compete with male counterparts.

(v) The age factor

Organisations sometimes discriminate against women because of age. Universities are no exception. How often has one seen a job advertisement for a senior position with an age limit that favours youth? or that favours men who in addition often reach certain levels of seniority at a younger age than women at the same stage of development in their careers? (Brown 1997). A study of more than 600 college administrators by Moore (1984) found that there was a preference for youth and an apparent increase in mobility for women aged between 50-55; while for men career mobility at the same age seemed to taper off. Moore and Sagarin, who conducted this study, attributed this trend in women's mobility to "affirmative action policies that encouraged institutions to discover and promote some of their senior women" (p11). Sutherland's study of university women teachers and Brooks' study on academic women both yielded similar results with regards to age. Their findings reflected that women's age disadvantaged them when it came to appointment to posts. For instance, Sutherland noted that women often enter the academic milieu late in life only to find that they are disadvantaged by posts which have an upper age limit of 35 (Sutherland 1985). The Report of the Hansard Society (1990:67-8) cites that "the scheme for 'new blood' posts, first introduced in 1983 [in the UK], was successfully challenged under the Sex Discrimination Act since it proposed an age limit of 35." Brooks found that age, as well as nationality, ethnicity, parenting and feminism, were significant factors in the perceptions and experiences of academic women (Brooks 1997). Maturity clearly seems to be an inhibitor to women's advancement in the academic world. Just when they are able to concentrate in earnest on their careers, and begin moving up the ladder the 'age clock' catches up with them and stops them 'dead in their tracks'. The Hansard Society report (1990) recommends the removal of the age limit on university posts in order not to disadvantage women who have taken a career break to raise their children.

(vi) The glass ceiling

The 'glass ceiling' concept ensures that women find it difficult to proceed beyond middle management level. Although this concept is commonly associated with the industrial and business world, it does have application in the education world as well. The 'glass ceiling' is an American concept popularised in the 1980's to describe a barrier so subtle that it is transparent, yet so strong that it prevents women and minority groups from moving up in the management hierarchy. The Hansard Society commission found that the 'glass ceiling' also exists in corporate Britain. It allows women "to see where they might go" but stops them from getting there (McRae 1996:13).

(vii) Lack of access to networks

The scarcity of female mentors and the exclusion of women from the 'old boy' network perpetuates structural and organisational barriers which hinders women's leadership opportunities (Brown 1997, Klenke 1996, Heward 1996, Cummings 1979, Simeone 1987, Touchton & Shavlik 1978).

Simeone (1987:84) writes:

> An important component of academic life is the informal network of communication within departments, institutions and disciplines, which are often the source of important social, political, and intellectual exchange. Being included in them may mean being aware of the latest developments in one's field, having one's work informally critiqued, knowing the latest gossip…, cultivating a research partner, receiving a job reference - all the helpful little opportunities that can add up to a career advantage.

The 'old boy' network continues to operate to the advantage of men in higher education institutions. Exclusion from networks is a barrier to women aspiring to, and already in, management positions due to its predominantly male constitution (Grevenstein 1989).It excludes women from crucial informal and formal information sharing, decision-making,

nomination and recommendation for jobs as this normally occurs in clubs frequented by men (Touchton & Shavlik 1978). Describing a professional women's network established by heads of department, deans and professors, at the end of the 1980's in the UK, King (1997) pointed out how professional networking may be a decisive vehicle to women's progress as it provides, among others, guidance, role modelling and support. The professional network described by King was intended for women in similar fields or on similar career paths to "make and share contacts." Networks are especially valuable to women in senior positions as they serve as a place for information sharing, an avenue to learn about job opportunities, and to get recommendations and references (King 1997:97) as well as to obtain advice, make contacts and gain support (Rhode 2003).

Consequently exclusion from such profession developing networks is a disadvantage to women. It would seem then to be beneficial for women to establish their own networks to which they could invite men who are sympathetic to their cause and open-minded enough to understand and tolerate their need for self-expression as women without being judged according to preconceived notions of what is acceptable and unacceptable leadership behaviour.

(d) Socio-economic and cultural barriers

The report of the Hansard Society commission on Women at the top (1990:66) states that "it is likely that the persistence of outdated attitudes about women's roles and career aspirations constitutes the main barrier stopping women from reaching the top in academic life" (in Brooks 1997:1).

One of these outdated attitudes relates to the roles and responsibilities of women. To a greater extent than in Western cultures African cultures expect women to put their domestic and family obligations before their (academic) careers. The choice to put family before career is usually rooted in cultural values which regard a man's success in his career as an accomplishment of a duty towards his family (Malik & Lie 1994, Mares 1990). Often women in a husband-wife relationship have to sacrifice their careers for their husbands' careers because of the traditional belief that the man is the provider in the

home. For supposed economic reasons, therefore, his career is given priority. As a result women who make such sacrifices publish less than others (Malik & Lie 1994). The act of balancing career, childcare and homemaking takes its toll on women, “reducing the time available for the research, reading and writing that nourish the academic life” (Mares 1990:73).

From girlhood women are traditionally socialised differently to boys. While boys are taught at an early age to value what society perceives as male characteristics, such as: leadership, aggressiveness, assertiveness, task-orientation and competitiveness, little girls are taught to be modest, submissive, affectionate and nurturing. Assertiveness and aggressiveness in girls is perceived as improper and hence is shunned in grown women too. Whereas it may be accepted as entirely natural for a male to aggressively pursue his goals and ambitions and openly declare his desire for promotion and leadership, the same behaviour from a woman is most likely to be perceived negatively by both men and women (Heward 1996).

O'Leary (1974:813) notes that :

> attributes valued highly in men reflect a ‘competency’ cluster including…objectivity, skill in business, and decision-making ability. Female valued traits comprise a ‘warmth-expressiveness’ cluster antithetical to the male profile.

This naturally leads to a potential barrier for women whose 'female traits' do not conform to the traditionally male definition of leadership. The socialisation of the girl-child and boy-child into feminine and masculine roles respectively, may be explicable in terms of gender-stereotypes. Society has ascribed roles and characteristics which are deemed appropriate for males and those which are deemed appropriate for females. Thus a woman who behaves in an emotional, submissive, compliant, dependent, gentle and nurturing manner would be enacting a gender stereotype ascribed to females. On the other hand gender-stereotypic characteristics for males are believed to include: assertiveness, aggressiveness, competitiveness, self reliance, being rational and so on.

From an early age, through primary school, high school and tertiary level, these gender stereotypes are perpetuated as demonstrated by the following case study example.

At a university a study, consisting of two tasks, of the effect of the gender of the group leader on the performance of the group, first year students had to indicate their preference for a group leader and give reasons for their choice. Zulu (2002) found that the gender stereotypes yielded by the study were similar to those revealed by many studies on gender issues. The majority of male and female students showed a preference for male leadership.

Role theory (which combines gender-stereotypes and gender-role expectations) has been used to account for gender differences in leadership (Klenke 1996).This expectation constitutes a barrier for academic women aspiring to leadership positions as they are faced with conflict between their gender role of wife and mother, and their organisational role of leader. While they are expected to behave as women, they are also expected to behave as leaders. Leader roles are defined in male terms. This scenario presents a double-bind for women, who are perceived as weak and passive if they display female leader behaviour, and seen as too aggressive and masculine if they adopt male leader behaviour (Wallace 1994).

It is evident from the review of the literature that the conception of leadership as male-oriented is prevalent in institutions of higher education and societies in all parts of the world and most definitely in South Africa. In the UK the conception of leadership as a male preserve manifests itself in the ascendancy of men in institutions like Oxford and Cambridge. At Oxbridge women are not even perceived as potential heads of committees or professors (Hansard Report 1990:67) The Hansard report indicates that the status quo of such institutions as Oxbridge is unacceptable stating that, “It is wholly unacceptable that the centres of modern academic teaching and excellence in Britain should remain bastions of male power and privilege” (Hansard Society 1990:11). The Society made this recommendation:

> …that all universities should appoint equal opportunities officers and that they should monitor and publish information about women's progress. We also recommend that the universities of Oxford and Cambridge should, as a matter of urgency, investigate the ways in which their practices put women at a disadvantage; and that in the absence of such investigations, women's under-representation in each of these universities is worthy of attention by the Equal Opportunities Commission (Hansard Society 1990:11).

A serious campaign began in the last decade of the 20th century to explore and remove barriers to the advancement of women in both the public and private sectors through the establishment of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) "who published guidelines on equal opportunities in employment…and subsequently established a Commission on University Career Opportunity" as well as the launch of Opportunity 2000 (Brown 1997:109). Opportunity 2000 was launched in 1991 as a result of the recommendations of a commission of the Hansard Society established in 1989:

> to identify barriers to the appointment of women to senior occupational positions, and to other positions of power and influence, and to make recommendations as to how these barriers could be overcome (McRae 1996:5).

(e) Racism and sexism as barriers

Women in the academic face discrimination in many areas as a result of their gender. But black academic women face double discrimination – that of sex and race. It is necessary to differentiate the experiences of black academic women in order to highlight the impact of race, ethnicity, class and sex on black women as a group. Holvino (2003) emphasises the need to understand the black women's experience of race instead of lumping all women's experiences together as universal. She says, "If we understand that "women" is not a universal experience or category, then it is imperative that we identify, untangle, and change the differential impact that everyday practices have for different women in different types of organisations" (Holvino 2003:262). So that the experiences of some groups are not marginalised and silenced (Merril-Sands Holvino & Cummings 2003).

The barriers of sex and race tend to manifest themselves more blatantly in universities or units where the black, or white in this case, woman academic is the minority. The black woman academic is used in this section to illustrate how racism and sexism act as 'gate-keepers' to her progress. Examples are drawn from research by black academics into the experiences of African-American women academics.

Trotman Reid (1990) and Reid Wolfman (1997) point out how, in order to advance, a black woman academic has to be outstanding and demonstrate a higher than usual level of competence in her field. She may have to do "twice as much to accomplish tasks better than expected…" (Reid Wolfman 1997:63). Even when she does excel above the rest she will still be viewed with suspicion and as "an exception to her race ad gender" (Bell & Nkomo 2003:349). Her accomplishments may be attributed to sources other than her ability (Trotman Reid 1990, Kawewe 1997). She may suffer subtle and blatant forms of discrimination which may be difficult to attribute to either her gender or colour or both. Trotman Reid (1990:153) says "the most blatant form of discrimination is direct exclusion"; exclusion from a programme, employment, promotion and tenure (for those women who have attained faculty status). Kawewe (1997: 250) adds another dimension to the discrimination narrative. She points out that:

> racism, sexism and xenophobic attitudes of students and faculty are key factors in creating a hostile climate. The climate is further complicated by faculty politics. Although competition is keen, faculty black women are not expected to compete successfully. The discrimination and low expectations seem more intense if the black woman has no American roots. Seemingly when those expectations are contradicted, desperation appears to infiltrate the other faculty and lead them to use students against the black woman.

Being black and female then may render it more difficult to progress quickly through the academic ranks or into leadership and management positions, as one has to compete with white colleagues and black males (Trotman Reid 1990). Even when a black woman has progressed to a managerial position, she may still face subtle discriminatory barriers such as "being stereotyped as incompetent and unqualified for the job," or being "held to a

higher standard" and then having surprise expressed when she exceeds those standards (Bell & Nkomo 2003:348-9).

The black academic woman typically feels isolated, lonely and something of a token (Trotman Reid 1990, Daniel 1997). In the case of a black woman administrator, her isolation and loneliness may be manifested in the amount of responsibility, power and support she is given. Invariably she is given more responsibility than power, and little support from her superiors. Additionally she may carry the burden of having to represent her race and gender, which may result in stress and even abandonment of the academic career. Sandler (1993:193-4) notes how issues of isolation and visibility are "especially pertinent for minority women" because of their lower numbers in academe and because "visibility is heightened by race and sex."

Results from interviews of black female administrators, black professors and black female undergraduates on white campuses (Trotman Reid 1990: 156) indicated that "black women typically feel isolated, stereotyped and unaccepted." In their survey of the career experiences of African-American women in executive positions, Miller and Vaughn (1997) found that race and gender presented serious challenges for these leaders. The professionals surveyed reported that their expertise and competence were often challenged and questioned (Bell & Nkomo 2003:358). Bell & Nkomo's national survey of women managers in corporate America and their perceptions of the barriers they encountered revealed differences in the experiences of black and white managers. For instance, black managers reported feelings of frustration "over the lack of control and authority in their managerial roles" (Bell & Nkomo 2003:354). This challenging of their authority came from bosses, subordinates and colleagues. The challenge became an impediment to their ability to demonstrate competence.

Observations of career advancement indicated that a large percentage of black managers felt they were behind where they should be whereas the same percentage of white managers felt they were ahead of where they expected to be (p356). Many of them did not attribute their lack of progress to gender discrimination. Several black women managers felt that their respective companies had hollow commitments to advancing

women and minorities. White women managers were more positive about their companies' efforts in this direction.

Other barriers for black women administrators have to do with the way merit and standards are used to exclude women and minorities from positions and promotions. Excuses such as 'not fitting the profile of candidate sought by the organisation' can be used to eliminate prospective or current members. Green (1997:152) refers to this as "a good fit" saying this term is sometimes used by organisational leaders to discriminate against certain people. She notes how the values of collegiality, institutional memory, merit and a good fit serve to exclude women and minorities.

Black women administrators are more likely to be the first to go in a climate of rationalisation, downsizing and cutbacks, as they are "particularly vulnerable to university-wide attrition incentives and cutbacks" (Green 1997:156). But in the case of South Africa, the new political dispensation and the Employment Equity Act are likely to favour the retention of black women. However, as the implementation of this Act differs from institution to institution, with some institutions paying lip service and others favouring white and black men or white women, the situation might be somewhat different in reality.

Those who hold 'soft money' positions may go first, while others who lack seniority or other non-expendable attributes may soon follow. In the case of South Africa, one might safely assume that women administrators who are part of a racial and ethnic minority would be the first to go. The economic environment therefore may be a possible obstacle for black women in the academic world and in the wider society. The socio-economic backgrounds of many black women academics who are from diverse cultures are mostly concerning 'survival'. That is, in most families, members just manage to get by. As a result, black women academics may find that their economic situation allows them to proceed to a certain level of education and not beyond, or if they do go beyond the Junior degree, their progress may be interrupted by frequent time-out to work and support elderly parents or extended family members. Consequently, by the time the woman

attains sufficient credentials to be eligible for a leadership position, her age may no longer be appropriate.

A study undertaken by Powney and Weiner in 1992, which involved members of under-represented groups in senior management positions in UK universities, looked at the personal and institutional obstacles experienced by women and members of black and/or ethnic minorities in their attempts to become and remain managers. The findings crystallised the difficulties encountered by women managers of black or ethnic minority origin. As Powney (1997:55) puts it, "being a black woman brings double indemnity." Powney lists examples of incidents reported by her informants in which they experienced racial hostility either of a blatant or subtle nature in the form of sexist comments, racist attitudes and behaviours. In one case, a black woman head-teacher reportedly suffered sexist comments from fellow head-teachers such as, "the role of a woman teacher is not to be a head" (Powney 1997:56). Another example involved a head telling a new appointee how shocked she was at the fact that the appointee was black. Yet another case involved withdrawal of privileges normally accorded a senior inspector such as personal assistant and/or secretary. Black senior managers in Powney's study, as in the other studies already discussed, also reported role overload in addition to feelings of isolation and tokenism. Kram and Hampton (2003:216) also concur that "the opportunity for women to flourish in a leadership capacity is often undermined by substantial role overload…" Women leaders are often expected to assume various roles both formal and informal. Although these roles contribute to making the woman highly visible, some of them put a strain on the woman's time and energy. In Powney's study, it was reported that in other instances promotion opportunities were deliberately blocked by line managers through poor references or by telling candidates they were not ready for promotion. Various other discriminatory practices were reported by black men and women informants in Powney's (1997) the Outside of the Norm Project such as:

- being set-up for a job which had already been earmarked for someone else or where there seemed to be an implicit colour bar
- job applications from black applicants which went missing

- a local education authority adviser giving a black female teacher misleading criteria applicable for secondment to study for a higher degree
- several examples of black candidates having to make a seemingly inordinate number of applications before obtaining promotion; for example, one man from an ethnic minority group applied for nineteen posts as deputy before getting one, and then put in 120 headship applications before being interviewed for three, all of which he was offered

(Powney 1997:55).

3.3.2.2 Strategies for overcoming the barriers

Various strategies have been suggested regarding how to dismantle personal, socio-cultural and institutional barriers to the progress of academic women in higher education and in educational management (Fine 2003, Zulu 2003, King 1997, Astin & Davis 1993, O'Leary & Lie 1990, O'Leary V.E. & Mitchell J.M. 1990, Greyvenstein 1989, Wilson & Byrne 1987, Sutherland 1985, Cummings 1979, Soldewell 1979, King 1997).

Cummings (1979:66) suggests several solutions for overcoming barriers to women's advancement in the job hierarchy in higher education. Among these is the need to "understand the patterns of management and control" in their own institutions. This involves knowing who makes policy, who implements it, who makes decisions, what the long-range plans of the institution are, what the budget is, and how it is put together. Cummings also emphasises the need for women to 'network', to be visible, to take part in training programmes designed to prepare participants for academic leadership and to do degree programmes in higher education administration. Astin and Bayer (1979) recommend that for women to be productive in research and publication in order to gain promotion, they need to:

- familiarise themselves with networks and resources necessary for publishing successfully
- subscribe to many journals
- improve their credentials

- be motivated
- have the support of family and spouse
- possess the required skills.

Strategies for overcoming the barriers of racism, sexism and ethnicity which various researchers have suggested for black women in leadership and management are to:

- learn about the culture of the organisation [in which you work] (Green 1997:156 Miller & Vaughn 1997:187)
- build external support outside [your] unit or department to embrace the wider campus/other campuses or organisations (Green 1997:156).
- keep strong ties with family, church and community; affiliations with these help relieve stress by providing creative outlets and sources of renewal; family provides continuity of identity and a reality base as it is supportive, nurturing and corrective (Reid Wolfman 1997); family and community serve as havens for emotional support, protection and stability as one transcends the challenges and meets the opportunities of the workplace culture (Miller & Vaughn 1997:182).
- obtain formal preparation in administration and leadership
- make use of advice and counsel of mentors; mentor others
- develop strong personal and professional networks
- acquire appropriate skills and competences necessary for administrative positions (Miller & Vaughn 1997:182)
- be aware that sexism and racism can affect your career, don't lose your balance over sexist comments (Powney 1997:53)
- serve on key university committees to get opportunity to interact and be recognised by top university administrators
- develop a track record that attracts the attention of others
- develop collegial, non-threatening relationships with staff and faculty
- excel at the lower step on the ladder before giving consideration to the next step
- give the same attention to your current appointment as you would the presidency or vice presidency [vice chancellorship/deputy vice chancellorship]

- (Dawson 1997:199).

Some environmental strategies are:

- the university or college community must examine the practices in which it traditionally engages and assesses the degree of stereotyping and misinformed assumptions which are being perpetrated (Trotman Reid 1990:158)
- building a local university network of ethnic minorities at various levels throughout the campus to establish a supportive environment (Trotman Reid 1990:151)
- joining groups on the university campus that are influential in changing university policies and practices to prevent discrimination and oppression
- participation on permanent committees formed to explore and report on professional climate issues and to make campus-wide recommendations (Daniel 1997:176)
- institutional policies and practice to support those individual women striving against sexism to become managers (Powney 1997:55)
- proper staff recruitment, appointment and promotion procedures should be implemented and backed up by effective appraisal schemes and a coherent staff development programme (Powney 1997: 56).

3.3.2.3 Overcoming personal/psychological barriers

Personal barriers are those which are intrinsic to the woman herself. They are psychological or attitudinal factors which inhibit the woman's efforts to advance herself.

Suggested strategies include:

- training women to improve their self-image
- making women aware of promotion possibilities for which their competence levels qualify
- training women to resolve role conflict internally and to define life goals according to their own value system

- training women to have high aspirations and motivating them to have confidence in their ability to succeed
- encouraging aspiring women leaders to have realistic career development plans; drive to achieve;
- developing an understanding of politics and a willingness to be an activist and to provide new ethical and moral leadership.

3.3.2.4 Overcoming socio-economic and cultural barriers

Socio-economic and cultural barriers are those traditionally held beliefs and norms about the role of a woman in society how it should be including the economic status of the woman in society. The degree to which traditional beliefs about woman's role in society are held differs across cultures.

Suggested strategies include:

- providing assertiveness training for women
- providing maternity and paternity leave
- eradicating all expressions of stereotypes or attitudes which create a hostile environment for the advancement of women
- holding gender-sensitisation and gender consciousness-raising campaigns.

3.3.2.5 Overcoming structural/systemic barriers

Structural/systemic barriers refers to those obstacles inherent in the organisation which are related to policy and practice, institutional culture, working arrangements, networks, role models and mentors and so on.

Suggested strategies include:

- creating awareness among women of the barriers to productivity, the implications of certain choices and of the diverse paths to productivity
- exposing and eliminating all barriers to research productivity which are beyond the control or choice of women

- acquainting women with the resources and networks necessary for publishing success
- focusing on a special area of research to attract collaboration from peers and ensure visibility and recognition of one's work
- formulating and adhering to clear formal policies for evaluation and promotion in which the criteria are explicitly stated
- developing un-biased recruitment, selection and employment procedures
- redefining qualifications to take into account non-traditionally acquired skills
- placing more weight on criteria which do not unfairly disadvantage women such as teaching and university service
- expanding career opportunities for women by developing new career paths within the organisation that include lateral moves and different career tracks
- providing equal access to information about funding sources for research and publication
- establishing efficient and effective research centres which offer guidance and support to novice researchers, especially women
- encouraging women to become members of professional development and information sharing networks
- establishing mentoring programs where senior staff mentor junior ones
- making opportunities available for women to improve their credentials, to attend conferences, present papers, publish, organise and participate in symposia
- removing age restrictions.

Before concluding this chapter on barriers, a critical perspective presented by Meyerson and Ely (2003) might be worth considering. In their attempt to provide an answer to the question of why there are so few women in leadership positions, Meyerson and Ely deconstruct the commonly cited strategies to overcoming the problem of women's advancement to senior management/leadership positions, namely, changing the woman herself, removing structural barriers and bringing about greater diversity and critical mass) . Instead they advocate a two-pronged approach which combines an expansion of the eradication of structural barriers that have excluded women and men "who have been

traditionally under-represented in leadership and organisational roles" and "a shift in emphasis from simply *adding* different perspectives to the traditional mix to *using* different perspectives to transform the traditional mix itself"(Meyerson & Ely 2003:136). Their belief is that a diversity of perspectives, including but not limited to those provided by women, become a potentially valuable resource that the organisation can use to re-think and re-configure its primary tasks, including, leadership.

3.4 SUMMARY

As background to the discussion in chapters two and three, this chapter has presented an analysis of the position of academic women in South Africa and the UK. Statistical information shows the extent of progress made in the representation of women in various academic ranks. In South Africa as in the UK, there is a noticeable degree of progress though academic women still form the minority in the upper ranks of the academic hierarchy.

Obstacles to the advancement in general of women in higher education and black women in particular as identified internationally by researchers were discussed. Particular attention to research findings on barriers affecting academic women in South Africa and the UK was given.

Ultimately women academics find themselves in a 'catch 22' situation. The barriers of race, ethnicity, class and sex highlight the fact that although academic women may experience similar obstacles to their advancement, their experiences may differ in significant ways as a result of class, race and ethnicity.

Black women academics face the double discrimination of sex and race. Studies of the differential impact of gender, class and race on different women show the need to consider a differentiated analysis of the experiences of women in order to provide appropriate advice and design suitable programmes. In order to advance their careers, they need to have a doctorate. To be promoted to the professoriate they have to show evidence of research productivity. On the other hand, to have the doctorate and to be

productive in research and publication, women require time and resources, both of which require a great deal of extra effort from academic women. These women are frequently burdened with university committee work, departmental administrative tasks and teaching undergraduate students.

Three categories of barriers were selected for examination for the purposes of this thesis:

- personal/psychological
- socio-economic/ cultural
- structural/systemic.

These barriers are discussed in the context of the advance of their careers of women academics into leadership and management positions. It was found that personal/ psychological barriers which affect women's advance in the academic world include of women academics poor self-image, lack of confidence, fear of success as well as role conflict. Suggested strategies for overcoming these barriers include training women to improve their self-image, to resolve role conflict internally and to have high aspirations and believe in their ability to lead. Socio-economic/cultural barriers include traditional societal perceptions and attitudes regarding the role of women and their career aspirations and how these limit the hopes of women wishing to progress in academic circles. Among solutions suggested for overcoming these barriers are campaigns which should be held to raise people's consciousness concerning to gender issues; diminishing all negative stereotypes or attitudes which create an environment not conducive to the advancement of women and provision for assertiveness training and appropriate maternity/paternity leave.

The main structural/systemic obstacles identified are related to recruitment, selection and hiring procedures, career-development and promotion policies. Barriers observed consist of 'gate-keeping' practices in research and publication (which aspects are considered the chief criteria for promotion); hiring practices which favour certain age groups and disregard the slow progress of women in advancing to the desired levels by an 'acceptable' age; casualisation of women; selection committees comprising senior males who seem to emphasise the woman's ability to adapt rather than her academic

credentials; vague criteria for promotion; lack of access to information-sharing networks; the persistence of the 'glass ceiling' and preconceived notions of what constitutes 'women's work' and 'men's work'. The persistence of 'hegemonic masculinities' in academic circles ensures that more men than women are promoted to the top.

Among the suggested strategies for surmounting systemic obstacles are: the formulation of and adherence to unambiguous formal policies for evaluation and promotion; the development of unbiased recruitment, selection and employment procedures; provision of equal access to information and networks regarding funding sources for research and publication; awareness of the barriers to productivity and the implications of certain choices; expansion of career opportunities for women and development of new career paths that include lateral moves and other directions; exposure and elimination of barriers to research productivity which are beyond the choice or control of women; creating visibility and recognition for oneself through focusing on a special area of research; establishment of mentoring and networking programmes for developing academic women and their research as well as providing opportunities for women to improve their credentials. Meyerson and Ely (2003:140) advocate a pertinent strategy for bringing about structural change to improve the advancement of women to leadership, "a series of localised incremental changes in workplace practices – rather than a wholesale revolution or simply promoting more women into leadership roles."

In conclusion, it is apparent from this review of the literature on barriers to women's advancement in higher education that the problem still exists even in advanced countries like the UK, USA and Australia, where equal opportunities legislation has long been in force. In South Africa, the problem of women's under-representation and unequal opportunities in the academic world has only recently been paid serious attention. Progress is evident but it is very slow owing to the gap that exists between the advancement of male academics and female academics. The few studies that have been conducted in universities attest to this slow growth and point to the existence of barriers, within and without the academic world, which hinder the advancement of women academics to positions of leadership and management. Identifying these barriers and systematically dismantling them will be a long and arduous process. But if women, men,

academe and society were to recognise and acknowledge the existence of these obstacles, an important first step towards their eradication will be taken.

In chapter 4 the author details the research design and methodology used to study the experiences of women in management in universities in the two countries selected for this study. The topic under discussion begins with the theoretical foundation of quantitative methodology followed by the choice of data collection method and the design of the study including the sample population. This includes the selection of the informants and how they were located, the instrument development, data collection and lastly, the analysis plan.

CHAPTER 4 : RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Research design refers to the plan and structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence to answer research questions (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:31-32). The design describes the procedures for conducting the study including when, from whom, and under what conditions data is obtained. The purpose of research design is to provide the most valid, accurate answers possible to research questions. In this chapter it is the aim of the researcher to present the research design and methodology employed in the study. To start with, though, a brief overview of the preceding background chapters.

In chapter 2, a general idea of leadership and management in universities was given. The main focus was women in academic leadership and management and various related aspects, specifically those that relate to women in the academic context. Chapter 3 explored the phenomenon of women's under-representation in academic leadership and management positions in higher education in South Africa and the UK. Particular reference to their statistical representation was made including the obstacles to their advancement.

The review of the literature outlined in the previous chapters revealed the extent to which research on women in management in universities, has up till now, been addressed. The gaps identified in the existing research provided a springboard from which to launch the current investigation. The main endeavour of this inquiry is to close the gaps in knowledge and add a further dimension. This would be the actual experiences of academic women in leadership and management positions.

In the chapter which follows the review of the literature details of the research design and methodology used to study the experiences of women in management in universities in the two countries selected for this study are given. The topics discussed begin with the theoretical basis of quantitative methodology followed by the choice of data collection method; the design of the present study including the sample population; selection of

informants; locating informants; instrument development; data collection and plan of analysis.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY – A THEORETICAL BASIS

There are two major types of research design: quantitative and qualitative. These designs have fundamental differences which will be discussed only briefly in this section. The basic difference between the two designs is that quantitative research presents results with statistics, and qualitative research uses words to describe phenomena (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:40). The present study utilises a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. Two types of quantitative approaches are distinguished: experimental and non-experimental. The non-experimental type is selected for this study. In non-experimental design there is no manipulation of conditions. Rather, the investigator makes observations or obtains measures from subjects to describe something that has occurred (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:32). Survey research is non-experimental design and is the method used in this study.

4.2.1 Survey research – general orientation

According to Neuman (2000: 250), the survey researcher follows a deductive approach. He or she begins with a theoretical or applied research problem and ends with empirical measurement and data analysis.

In addition, according to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:279), the investigator selects a sample of respondents and administers a questionnaire or conducts interviews to collect information. The data gathered are used to describe characteristics of a certain population. Surveys are used to learn about people's attitudes, beliefs, values, demographics, behaviour, opinions, habits, desires, ideas, and such information. A survey researcher, Neuman (1997:31), often uses a small sample, a small group of selected people, but applies results to a larger group. Survey techniques are often used in descriptive or explanatory research. Most surveys describe the incidence, frequency and

distribution of the characteristics of an identified population. In addition to being descriptive, surveys can also be used to explore relationships between variables and be explanatory.

McMillan and Schumacher (1993:281) suggest a series of steps to follow when conducting survey research. The first step involves defining the purpose and objectives of the research, which should include a general statement and specific objectives that define in detail the information that needs to be collected. The objectives should be unambiguous. Next, the resources and target population should be selected. This necessitates making decisions about the total amount of time, money and personnel available before designing the methodology to gather data. Financial constraints may dictate whether a locally developed or already existing instrument is used. The sample size may also be determined by the amount of money available. The objectives of the study may need to be modified accordingly.

Thereafter a choice of methods to gather data must be made. The questionnaire and personal interview are the most frequently used techniques for collecting data. In a survey, the techniques must be standardised so that information from each respondent is gathered in a consistent manner and the administration, format and sequence of questions and statements is the same (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:281).

A sampling decision is then made. Most surveys use a form of random sampling to ensure a representative sample of the population. The sample can be stratified. The letter of transmittal follows. This letter should be brief and should establish the credibility of the researcher and his/her study by including:

- the names and identification of the investigators
- the significance of the research for the respondent and profession
- the protection afforded the respondents by keeping their identity confidential
- a definite time limit
- endorsements for the study by recognised institutions or groups
- a brief description of the questionnaire and procedure

- mention of an opportunity to obtain results
- a request for co-operation and honesty
- thanks to the respondent.

Follow-up should be done after a period of two to four weeks. The follow-up letter should contain another questionnaire, a stamped return-addressed envelope as well as a cover letter stressing the importance of the study and the subject's contribution. Non-respondents who have failed to return the completed questionnaire should also be followed up especially if the results are to be used for important decisions.

4.2.2 Data collection techniques

Besides the research design, research can be classified according to the technique used in the study to collect data (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:40). There are six ways to collect data. There are questionnaires, interviews, documents, tests and unobtrusive measures. All research uses a variation of one or more of these, depending on their applicability to the research being undertaken. Like research designs, the techniques can be classified as either quantitative or qualitative. As McMillan and Schumacher (p40) point out, the fundamental difference is that quantitative approaches use numbers to describe phenomena, while qualitative data collection techniques use narrative descriptions.

While most of the techniques can be used with any of the research designs, research design is closely related to technique. The quantitative technique emphasises *a priori* categories to collect data in the form of numbers. The goal is to collect data to provide statistical descriptions, relationships and explanations. Quantitative techniques (McMillan & Schumacher 1993: 41) are used with experimental, descriptive and correlational designs as a way to summarise a large number of observations and to indicate numerically the amount of error in collecting and reporting data. Quantitative research uses different types of data collection techniques such as structured observations; standardised interviews; tests; questionnaires and unobtrusive measures.

The questionnaire and interview of the study under discussion – the Video Conference Focus group interview (VConf-FGI) - are discussed in the sections which follow. The chief data collection methods are quantitative and qualitative. They serve to complement rather than rival each other in the study. Flick (2002:265-266) distinguishes two alternative ways of concretising the use of the two methods discussed above. The one is to focus the single case where the same people are interviewed and fill in a questionnaire. Their answers in both are compared with each other, put together and referred to each other in the analysis. Sampling decisions are taken in two steps. The same people are included in both parts of the study, but in a second step it has to be decided which participants of the survey study are selected for the interviews. The other alternative is to establish the link between quantitative and qualitative research on the level of the data set (p226). The answers to the questionnaires are analysed for their frequency and distribution across the whole sample. The answers to the interviews are also analysed and compared and a typology is developed. The questionnaire is then the distributed and answers and typology are linked and compared.

4.2.2.1 The questionnaire

Questionnaires (McMillan & Schumacher1993:42) encompass a variety of instruments in which the subject responds to written questions to obtain reactions, beliefs and attitudes. The researcher chooses or constructs a set of appropriate questions and asks the subjects to answer them, usually, in a form that requests the subject to check the response. Most survey research uses questionnaires because of their advantages over other data collection methods. A questionnaire (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:238) is relatively economical, has standardised questions, can ensure anonymity, and can be written for specific purposes. Questionnaires can use statements or questions, but in all cases the subject is responding to something written.

The first step when developing new questionnaires is to consider justification. McMillan and Schumacher (1993:239) advocate the use or adaptation of an existing instrument instead of preparing a new one. Doing so would save time and money and may ensure that an instrument with established reliability and validity is used. Defining and listing

specific objectives is the second step in using a questionnaire. The objectives are formulated according to the research problems/questions and they show how each piece of information will be used. The objectives need not be strict behavioural objectives but they must be specific enough to indicate how the responses from each item will meet them. Babbie (1989), in McMillan and Schumacher (1993:240), suggests guidelines for writing effective questions and statements. These guidelines are:

- items should be written clearly and ambiguous words, jargon and complex phrases should be avoided
- questions should be limited to a single idea or concept, therefore double barrelled questions, that is, questions that contain two or more ideas, should be avoided
- respondents must be competent to answer, that is, the respondents should be able to provide reliable information.
- questions should be relevant; in other words, respondents should b asked to answer questions that are important to them and to respond to things about which they care and think
- items in the questionnaire should be written in a simple and easy to understand format
- negatively stated items should be avoided as should biased items or terms.

Neuman (1997:251& 2000:271-272) enumerates the following advantages of mail and self-administered questionnaires. This type of survey is cheap and can be conducted by a single researcher. Questionnaires can be sent to a wide geographical area and the respondent can complete the questionnaire when it is convenient. Anonymity is provided by mail questionnaires and interviewer bias is avoided. The disadvantages are that the response rate is often low and there is lack of control over the conditions under which the questionnaire is completed. Moreover, some respondents may give incomplete answers. It is also not possible to observe the respondent's reactions to questions, physical characteristics or the setting. In addition the kinds of questions a researcher can use are limited.

4.2.3 Analysis of data

4.2.3.1 Quantitative data analysis

According to Punch (2003:64), a descriptive analysis of all the main variables is done focusing on distribution statements. Appropriate means, standard deviations and frequency distributions may be used. This can be done across the whole sample as well as for important sub-groups within the sample using tables to present results. Bivariate relationships are examined between the variables – taking into consideration whether the variables are continuous or categorical. Generally the following is recommended (Punch 2003:64):

- if both variables are continuous, use product-moment correlation
- if one variable is continuous and the other categorical and dichotomous, use either point bi-serial correlation or t tests for the differences between group means
- if one variable is continuous and the other categorical with more than two categories, use one-way analysis of variance for the difference between groups
- if both variables are categorical, use contingency tables.

The investigation of joint relationships between variables and the techniques to be used are guided by the research questions and the way those research questions are phrased. In general, Punch (2003:65) advocates the use of multiple linear regression in the investigation of joint relationships between variables. Quantitative data may be presented in various forms, such as, graphs, charts, tables and diagrams.

Punch (2003:45) recommends doing the following before undertaking survey data analysis: data preparation, data cleaning and data entry. Data cleaning refers to the tidying up of the data set before the analysis itself begins. Questionnaire responses need to be proofread by the researcher, and decisions made about unclear responses, situations where a respondent may have answered more than one alternative, and missing data. Once that is done, the questionnaire responses need to be entered into the computer for

electronic data processing. Questions of design, layout and format will have to be answered in preparing data for processing.

Survey data analyses often use certain statistical tools. These may be univariate, bivariate or multivariate. The data from each individual survey item is known as a variable because it can vary from one respondent to the next (Alreck & Settle 1995: 268). Univariate statistical tools describe one variable at a time, while bivariate statistics may include two variables and show the relationship between them. Other tools called multivariate statistics may include several variables and show the pattern of relationships among them (p268). Virtually all survey analyses use univariate statistics and almost all surveys also use bivariate statistical tools. Multivariate statistical analysis is used in more elaborate survey analyses.

4.2.4 The Interview

4.2.4.1 The focus group interview - FGI

This section presents first an overview of focus group interviewing as a specific form of interviewing technique. Secondly, two main types of focus group interviews, namely the internet focus group and net-based focus groups, with specific focus on the video conference focus group, are put forward.

The focus group interview FGI is a non-quantitative research data collection method. It is called a focus group interview because it is focused in two ways. To begin with the group participants are similar in some way, and secondly, the purpose is to gather data about a single topic. They are most often guided by open-ended discussion questions proposed by the researcher, with an emphasis on gaining insights through group opinions rather than on specific facts (Anderson & Kanuka 2003:103). However, it is used in this study for the purpose of methodological triangulation, which is explained later in the chapter. The FGI, according to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:432), is a variation of the ethnographic interview. It is a strategy for obtaining a better understanding of a problem or an assessment of a problem, a new product, program or idea by interviewing a purposefully

sampled group of people rather than each person individually. Focus group interviewing (Krueger 1994:65) is more than asking questions in a group; it involves asking well thought out questions in a focused environment. It involves homogeneous people in a social interaction in a series of discussions; its purpose is to collect qualitative data from a focused discussion (Krueger 1994:37).

The focus group is a special kind of interview situation (Neuman 1997:253), where a researcher gathers together 6-12 people in a room with a moderator to discuss a couple of issues for one to two hours. The moderator introduces issues and ensures that no one person dominates. The moderator is flexible, keeps people on the topic and encourages discussion. Responses are tape-recorded or recorded by a secretary who assists the moderator. The group members should be homogeneous enough to reduce conflict but should not include friends or relatives.

Focus groups are useful in exploratory research or to generate new ideas for hypotheses, questionnaire items and the interpretation of results. Focus groups are effective for collecting data about attitudes, perceptions and opinions, as well as for revealing the complexities of the problem. In particular, focus groups are effective for gaining a more in-depth understanding of the topic and have the capacity to gather rich and credible qualitative data (Anderson & Kanuka 2003: 102-103). The FGI technique differs from the survey questionnaire method. Alreck and Settle (1995:397) provide a clear explanation of how the focus group agenda works. The questions on the agenda are loosely and broadly framed and the agenda is much more flexible.

The discussion may suggest additional topics of inquiry to be pursued producing further data and ideas that might not have been collected in individual interviews (Anderson & Kanuka 2003 citing Stewart & Shamdasani 1998). The topics and issues on the focus group agenda need not be approached in the order in which they are listed. Unlike the survey questionnaire, questions for focus groups are not designed to be answered with a single word or phrase. They are not tightly phrased and worded (p398), but instead are loosely framed. The moderator may approach questioning in one of two ways. One should enquire in a way that would reveal participants' conclusions about the issue and

then follow with a series of ‘probing’ questions to learn what lies behind their opinions. The other approach is to first solicit information about the background situation then proceed to inquire about the conclusive opinion that results under such conditions (p398).

The schedule of questions for the focus group must be organised according to some principle in order to avoid chaos. There should be meaningful transitions from one topic to the next. While some order and organisation is necessary, the questions schedule need not be too rigid. Flexibility should be built in to allow for minor diversions where participants may bring up an idea or question which might not have been anticipated by the researcher or moderator. The moderator should be able to pursue that idea for a while then steer the discussion back to the next topic. Such unanticipated ideas or questions are referred to as ‘serendipitous’ questions Krueger (1994:68). The most effective focus group schedule (Alreck & Settle 1995:399) moves from the general to the specific – that is, from a discussion of broad general issues or principles to an exploration of specific details.

Having organised the schedule of questions, consideration should be given to the recruitment and selection of focus group participants. It is recommended that focus group participants be carefully recruited and selected. The focus group participants (Alreck & Settle 1995:399) should be homogeneous in one respect and heterogeneous in another. This is necessary to provide diverse opinions, facilitate interaction and provide commonality of experience. Therefore participants need to be
screened so the group will be demographically homogeneous but heterogeneous regarding individual views (Alreck & Settle 1995:407).

The FGI technique has its advantages and disadvantages. Foremost among the advantages noted by Krueger (1994:34-36), are that focus groups place people in natural, real life situations which allows for dynamic group interaction. The group situation helps to relax respondents’ inhibitions, and the more natural environment encourages spontaneity. In addition, the format of a focus group discussion allows the moderator to probe thus allowing unanticipated issues to be explored. Another advantage is that besides providing speedy results, focus group discussions have high face validity; the technique is easily

understood and results are presented in lay terminology. Focus groups also enable the researcher to increase the sample size without dramatic increases in the time required of the interviewer.

As with all data gathering techniques, the FGI technique has several limitations. Krueger (1994:36-37) notes that, unlike the individual interview, the FGI gives the researcher less control. The interaction which occurs among participants may result in group members influencing the course of the discussion, and this sharing of group control makes for diversions irrelevancy. Data are more difficult to analyse. Group interaction provides a social environment, and comments must be interpreted within that context. Care must be taken to avoid taking comments out of context, out of sequence or even coming to premature conclusions. Groups differ in their characteristics; while one group may be lethargic and dull, another may be exciting, energetic and invigorating. Groups can also be difficult to assemble. The focus group requires that people come to a designated place at the same instance to share their perceptions. This takes time and effort to synchronise. Moreover, the discussion must take place in an environment conducive to conversation. These logistical problems may require incentives for participants to participate.

4.2.4.2 The Internet focus group- IFG

An alternative focus group interview which does not involve direct interaction is the Internet focus Group or IFG**.** Krueger and Casey (2000:189), describe the advantages and disadvantages of the Internet focus group. The IFG is a chat line with questions posed by a moderator and comments entered via the keyboard by participants at remote sites. At a more sophisticated level, the communication can be by voice or even by voice and video. The greatest advantage of the IFG is that it is inexpensive and links together people in far-flung locations (p190). The major disadvantage is the use of keyboards for entering comments. Those with quick keyboard and good written communication skills are at an advantage over those with limited keyboard and written communication skills.

The IFG has other disadvantages compared to the FGI. In his undated internet article entitled: ‘Internet focus groups are not focus groups-so don’t call them that’, Greenbaum

elaborates the major differences between the two groups. He points out that group dynamics are altered in internet focus groups. Whereas traditional focus groups thrive on the interaction between group participants, it is very difficult to create any real group dynamics in cyberspace. Moreover, it is not possible to duplicate non-verbal input in an on-line environment nor is it possible to know for sure if the person sitting at the computer is actually the person selected to participate, or if she is paying full attention to the process or being distracted by other things during the session. Lastly, the role of the moderator is limited in an on-line environment due to the lack of face-to-face involvement with the participants. Despite these disadvantages, the internet focus group affords a great deal of anonymity to participants and hence a feeling of ease and relaxation as the participant operates from comfortable familiar surroundings. Also moderator effects are reduced in a non face-to-face situation. These effects may include the personal characteristics of the moderator such as her physical appearance, general demeanour, age and race or even socio-economic characteristics and technical knowledge (Krueger 1994:102).

4.2.4.3 Net based focus groups

Focus groups can also be conducted by means of audio or video conferencing which provides a richer and more natural form of communication on the net (Anderson & Kanuka 2003: 104). Until recently, the required software, end-user hardware, and bandwidth have prevented use of these richer and more natural forms of communication on the Net. However, the development of multisited audio and video conferencing systems and the availability of high-speed connecting at home and in the workplace promise increased use of media rich, synchronous forms of net-based focus groups (Anderson & Kanuka 2003: 104).

Anderson and Kanuka (2003) distinguish four kinds of net-based focus groups:

- synchronous and text-based
- synchronous and audio and/or video-based
- asynchronous and text-based

- asynchronous and audio and/or video-based.

Text based email and computer conferencing are said to have been the predominant forms of asynchronous communication on the internet, while text-based chats are the most common and accessible way to conduct real time focus groups synchronously (Anderson & Kanuka 2003:104).

For the present study, the synchronous audio and video-based focus group was selected as the qualitative data gathering method.

4.2.4.4 The Video conference focus group

The VConf-FGI is the interview data collection method chosen for this study. A detailed description of this method, including its advantages and limitations is given in the choice of methodology and data collection sections.

4.2.5 Qualitative data analysis

In qualitative research, analysis begins as soon as the first set of data is gathered and runs parallel to data collection (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:479).Focus group analysis, according to (Krueger& Casey 2000:128), is systematic, sequential, verifiable and continuous. Systematic analysis is deliberate and planned – not capricious, arbitrary, or spontaneous. The analysis strategy is documented, understood and able to be clearly articulated by each member of the research team. Analysis is sequential and as such helps ensure that results will reflect what was shared in the groups. The investigation is verifiable when another researcher is able to arrive at similar conclusions using available documents and the data. There must be sufficient data to constitute a trail of evidence:

- field notes
- recordings
- oral summary of key points raised during each group session

- debriefing with the moderator team following the group session and transcripts if used (Krueger & Casey 2000:128).

Whereas with quantitative research, data scrutiny only begins when all necessary information has been gathered, focus group analysis begins with the first focus group (Krueger & Casey 2000:129) as the analysis is done concurrently with data collection and each subsequent group is investigated and compared to earlier groups.

There are a number of bases for data capturing and analysis. These are transcripts, tapes, notes including memory, depending on the purpose of the study. If the analysis is transcript based (Krueger & Casey 2000:130), the procedure is as follows:
The investigator reads the transcript, which is an unabridged typed version of the tape recording, and then makes notes, codes, and sections or develops categories. Full verbatim transcription is common for focus groups (Lee & Fielding 2004, Potter 2004, Pidgeon & Henwood 2004). It is a time consuming process estimated to take approximately 8-10 hours per hour of tape. It may even take longer if paralinguistic features are also transcribed (Pidgeon & Henwood). Potter (2004:615) estimates that a ratio of 1 hour of tape to 20 hours of transcription time is not unreasonable. When the record is complete, the transcripts are often printed with a wide margin to allow for the addition of notes and comments in the scrutiny stage. Coloured pens may be used or scissors to cut out and identify sections relevant to the study (Krueger & Casey 2000:131). A report, consisting of a summary of the findings from different audience groups in the study, is then prepared. The report may be organised thematically or by using the focus group questions as an outline. When using the analysis from tape-recordings, the researcher listens to the recording of each focus group and develops an abridged account including the most salient parts of the discussions. Analysis also relies on field notes which may have been supplemented by audio- or video recordings. The audio- and video recordings are used as backup if the notes need to be clarified. The final source for analysis is memory. This one requires considerable skill and experience. As Krueger and Casey (2000:132) point out, it has substantial potential for error when the user is not a professional moderator.

Two main data analysis approaches recommended for focus group scrutiny are the long-table approach and the computer approach**.** The long-table approach involves the core elements of cutting, sorting and arranging through comparing and contrasting. The computer approach uses three distinct methods: cut and paste; computer sorting, coding and macros; qualitative data analysis software programs such as Ethnograph or NUD*IST. Both long-table and computer methods are described in detail in Krueger and Casey (2000:132-138). Qualitative data presentation may use taxonomies, maps, lists, flowcharts, organisational charts, causal diagrams and various lists and grids (Neuman 2000:440).

4.3 CHOICE OF METHODOLOGY

This section puts forward the rationale for the choice of a combined quantitative and qualitative methodology in this study. Certain important factors were considered in the choice of this methodology and these are presented in the following discussion.

4.3.1 Technical considerations

A combined quantitative and qualitative methodology was chosen mainly because the two methods complement each other. The quantitative method, on the one hand has the potential to gather a large amount of standardised information from several informants. The standardisation of responses facilitates scoring and analysis and the method can be used to obtain factual, less personal information (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:251).

On the other hand, qualitative method gathers in-depth and elaborate information from a small purposefully sampled group of people. In this study this group is sampled from similar respondents to those who completed the questionnaire thus increasing the likelihood of obtaining reliable data. The qualitative method supplements the quantitative one as it elicits information of a personal nature and allows the participants to express feelings and opinions on issues which the questionnaire items do not allow. The VConf-FGI was selected as the qualitative method of choice because it creates a social environment in which group members are stimulated by each others' perceptions and

ideas which increases the quality and richness of data (McMillan & Schumacher1993: 432). Moreover, the focus group method serves to cross validate data collected by means of the questionnaire.

This combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in the design of the study is a form of triangulation. The section which follows explains the concept triangulation.

4.3.1.1 Triangulation

According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:498), triangulation is the cross validation among data sources, data collection strategies, time periods and theoretical schemes. To find regularities in the data, different sources, situations and methods are compared to see if the same pattern keeps occurring. Flick (2002:227) characterises triangulation as a key word used to name the combination of different methods, study groups, local and temporal settings as well as different theoretical perspectives in dealing with a phenomenon. It can mean combining several qualitative methods, but it can also mean combining qualitative and quantitative methods (Flick 2002:265).

Flick (2002:227) explains that triangulation was first conceptualised as a strategy for validating results obtained using individual methods. The focus, has however, shifted towards further enriching knowledge and towards transgressing the always limited epistemological potentials of the individual method. This way the two methodological perspectives balance each other. They operate side by side (Neuman 2000:125), remain autonomous and are seen as equal in their role in the project. They can function simultaneously too (p125).

Flick (2002:227) refers to the strategy of integrating quantitative and qualitative methods in one study as ‘methodological triangulation’. He distinguishes two types: within-method and between-method. The within-method strategy might use different sub-scales for measuring an item in a questionnaire, whereas the between-method strategy combines the questionnaire with a semi-structured interview.

4.3.2 Personal rationale for choice of methodology

The combined quantitative and qualitative methodology was found to be suitable for this study as the study deals with a phenomenon which not only lends itself to quantitative enquiry but also to qualitative exploration. The study seeks to describe both personal and shared experiences of different women involved in higher education management. To describe these experiences fully and to bring out their uniqueness, there needs to be free, open and standardised responses to allow for easy comparison, consequently the use of both focus groups and the questionnaire.

4.3.2.1 Usefulness of the comparative study of women in management in universities

Studies on women in management have mainly focused on women in business, political or educational management and leadership and not on women in university management. There are not enough studies which have explored the nuances of women's higher education management experience in a transforming university particularly at academic HoD level. The usefulness of this study is in the contribution it will make to the understanding of how women experience leading and managing an academic department in the context of the challenges presented by a transforming academic environment. The experiences shared by these women will serve as a frame of reference for other women in management and those aspiring to positions in management. It will also contribute to the reformulation or amelioration of existing institutional policies regarding academic department leadership and management.

Having dealt with the rationale for the choice of methodology, the design of the present study will be explained.

4.4 DESIGN OF PRESENT STUDY

This section describes the empirical methods used in the present study.

4.4.1 Introduction

The study was, carried out within the framework of a cross-sectional survey research design employing both quantitative (the questionnaire), and qualitative data collection methods (the interview). A closed-ended questionnaire, including open-ended questions and a semi-structured focus group interview, was used to gather data from female academic HoDs drawn from four selected universities in South Africa and two universities in the UK. Two groups of HoDs participated in the study. The first group of twenty three participated in the survey and the second group of nine women participated in the interviews. Only one woman participated in both the survey and the interviews. The section which proceeds details the parameters and procedures of the present investigation.

4.4.2 The survey

4.4.2.1 Sample population and sample size

Out of a sample of thirty HoDs for the survey a total of twenty-three participated. In the case of South African universities, retained universities not merging with other institutions, were chosen for the study so as to facilitate communication and to ensure stability. The participants at these sites were not expected to be drastically affected by the mobility and turnover occurring in merging institutions. The size and type of university was considered in the selection. The university had to be large, and representative of the demographics of the country. The likelihood of female heads of academic departments was necessary. The university also had to have at least one hard science faculty, either engineering or science or both. In other words, traditionally male dominated disciplines had to be present. A large university, typically, has several academic departments and a student enrolment of over 10,000. The selected universities in both countries met all the criteria described above. The selected South African universities were: University of Fort Hare; University of the Western Cape, University of Cape Town and University of Pretoria. In the UK the two universities selected were: Bristol University and University of London.

4.4.2.2 Selection of participants and the role of the researcher

Although random selection is preferred as it minimises selection bias (Krueger & Casey 2000:83) the pool of participants for this study was not sufficiently large to permit random sampling procedures. Therefore participants were chosen 'purposefully'. This is a strategy to choose small groups or individuals most likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena of interest (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:413). The criteria used for selection are outlined below.

The participants were selected on the basis of their position and length of service in that position. They were all female heads of academic departments who had been in the position for at least two years. For the focus group interview, participants were selected from a similar pool to that which completed the questionnaire. Care was also taken to ensure that heads of traditionally male oriented disciplines were included. Two groups of HoDs participated in the study, N= 9 in the VConf-FGI and N= 23 in the survey. Only 1 woman participated in both the survey and the interviews.

In the survey the role of the researcher was to distribute questionnaires via overland-post, conduct follow ups and check on non-respondents.

4.4.2.3 Locating participants

In South Africa, the participants were drawn from retained universities, namely those which were not merging with other universities. The four universities selected in South Africa comprised a traditionally English one; a traditionally Afrikaans one; an African one and one traditionally Coloured/Indian. Participants were first located through telephone contact with the human resources department of the relevant institution. Once contact with the prospective participant was established, a brief telephone interview was conducted to screen her. Thereafter she was informed that an email would follow with more details concerning the research. When all the prospective participants had been screened by telephone, a list was drawn up including their relevant details. This list was

then carefully scrutinised to determine which of the prospective participants was suitable for the survey. Once the selection was made, the prospective participants were contacted by email and/or by telephone.

Participants from the UK were first identified through a search of the selected university's website. They were then contacted by email with details of the study and an invitation to participate. In some cases, one person was located and then requested to recommend other suitable persons. The two universities in the UK are both traditionally English with black and other ethnic minorities. Twenty three female academic heads of department participated in the survey- fifteen from South Africa and eight from the UK.

4.4.2.4 Instrument development

This section describes how the survey data collection instrument used in the present study was developed, piloted and administered. Issues of reliability and validity are also addressed.

A sixteen page, structured, pre-coded survey was developed. It consisted of twelve sections A-L, with a combination of closed-ended and open-ended questions (see appendix).

- section A of the survey was designed to obtain participants' demographic information
- section B sought information about the relevant department and included items on numbers of students, teaching staff, female teaching staff, part-time lecturers, part-time female lecturers and the number of support staff/non-teaching staff
- section C collected information on participants' career preparation and advancement opportunities
- sections D –L each consisted of a 5 point scale Likert-type question.

With the exception of section E which used the scale 'very low –very high' all other sections used the scale 'very important – not important' or 'strongly agree- strongly disagree'. Section D dealt with 'skills' and section E dealt with 'perception of skill level';

section F dealt with ‘ob challenges’ and section G ‘strategies’ to address those challenges; section H dealt with ‘leadership and management’ and section I ‘tasks and functions’. Section J addressed ‘role perception’ and section K examined ‘leadership style’. The final section (L) dealt with ‘academic leadership’.

The questionnaire was compiled after a thorough review of the literature enabled the researcher to identify all the variables to be included in the study. Examples of questions, encountered in studies of women academic managers and leaders or women in management, were considered for further examination and evaluation. Once their suitability had been assessed they were modified and adapted for use in this investigation. New questions were also developed where no suitable ones were forthcoming. The language used in the instrument was English as being the language commonly spoken by the participants.

The assistance of an expert in questionnaire development was sought at every stage of the construction of the questionnaire. After scales had been developed for all the major variables in the study, an expert was consulted to review the instrument layout; item standardisation; clarity, relevance and level of difficulty of the language used. Using the professional feedback, the necessary changes were made and then a suitable sample found to pilot the instrument. The sample used resembled that used in the main study in terms of characteristics and profile. A letter of transmittal was drafted in which the purpose of the study was explained and the participant’s co-operation requested. The letter also assured the participant of anonymity and protection.

A follow up letter was then drafted to remind the participant her invaluable contribution and a copy of the questionnaire was enclosed. The questionnaires were mailed overland to all contributors.

4.4.2.5 Data collection

The process of data collection began in February 2006 and was completed in the first week of July of the same year. To reiterate, data were collected by means of two methods. One was a pre-coded questionnaire, and the other was the VConf-FGI.

The questionnaire was used for quantitative data collection which included among others, personal demographic information, career profile/prior experience; skills, tasks, roles and responsibilities; job challenges and strategies for dealing with them, perceptions and role expectations. Questionnaires were posted overland to the participants towards the end of March 2006 and responses were received during April and July 2006. The response rate was 77 per cent.

4.4.2.6 Data analysis

In this study, the SAS/STAT statistical package, version 9.1, was used to analyse the data captured from the questionnaire responses. Twenty three questionnaires were returned and their responses captured. Data analysis and presentation procedures for the quantitative data were employed. Each questionnaire item was regarded as representing a biographical characteristic or perception of the respondent on some managerial issue, and thus a separate variable. Analyses undertaken on the responses to these variables included the following:

- one- way frequencies: exploratory frequency tables on each and every questionnaire item.
- combined frequency tables: combined frequency tables for each section (D-L) ranked according to sum totals, calculated for each item within an aspect;
  the sum totals were calculated as the sums of frequencies in the two most favoured adjacent categories in each section
- summary tables of sub-item means: standard deviations minimum and maximum values for each of the issues covered within sections D-L of the various managerial issues

- relationships: cross-tabulations of the sub-sets of items within sections D-L of the questionnaire with biographical variables of age, years experience as HoD and years attached to their particular institution.

The purpose of each strategy is discussed below.

The analysis was conducted using one-way frequency tables for each question on the questionnaire. As an initial exploratory analysis step, univariate one-way frequency tables, categorised according to the specific options of each question, such as, 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' ; or 'single', married', 'divorced', were initially calculated for each variable. This step was undertaken to validate data and correct or remove any spurious responses. For example, if a response of '7' should be encountered for any of the 5 point rating scale questionnaire items in sections D-L, the particular response for the participant can be further investigated, traced back to the participants' questionnaire and checked. A value of '7' falls outside the range of valid responses - which vary between '1' and '5' for the five point rating scale questionnaire items.

The one-way frequency tables on the biographical variables, questions 1-33, were furthermore calculated as a means of describing the sample population of women in managerial positions. This was done in two stages, first on the entire sample population, then frequencies were split into SA and UK participants separately.

Combined frequency tables for sub-sets of items for each of the sections, D-L, of the questionnaire were utilised. In each of the sections, D to L, participants' ratings on several sub-issues were required. Each of these sub-issues represented a separate variable. The responses to the sub-issues in each section were integrated into a combined frequency table for each section/managerial aspect. By studying the response distribution within the various tables, a general impression of participants' perceptions on the various managerial issues can be formed.

Summary tables of mean, standard deviations, means and maximum values for each of the sub-issues covered within each of the managerial issues were calculated as well as for

each of the sub-issues covered within each of the managerial issues of sections D-L. By studying the mean response values within a section, sub-issues that deviate from the others within the section/aspect can easily be identified as a mean value substantially larger/smaller than the other mean values. These identified mean values indicate that participants perceived/rated the particular items/sub-issues differently to the others.

Combined-items frequency tables for each of sections D-L of the questionnaire were ranked. Participants had to decide which sub-items/sub-issues within each managerial issue they regarded as more important than others. In an attempt to rank the importance of the various aspects, the frequencies of the most favoured adjacent categories within a section, usually the positively rated categories, such as, 'important' and 'very important'/ or 'agree' and 'strongly agree' categories were summed for each sub-item within a section/managerial issue. It was argued that by combining adjacent 'positively' rated 'agree', 'strongly agree' or 'negatively' rated disagree/strongly disagree' categories, sub-items within a section could be ranked according to levels, of 'like' if positively rated or 'dislike' if majority of the items were negatively rated. The sum for each sub-item within a managerial aspect was ranked in descending order and presented as a separate table; such as,

- relationships: cross-tabulations of sub-items within sections D-L of the questionnaire with biographical variables of age, years experience as HoD and years attached to their particular institution
- frequency tables of cross-tabulations present how the biographical variables of age, years experience as HOD and years experience at current institutions affect/interact with the positively perceived part of each section's rating scale; the cross-tabulations were done in an attempt to determine whether these selected biographical variables influence participants' perceptions of the various managerial aspects
- chi-square tests were calculated from the table of frequencies to determine if there was any significance.

4.4.2.7. Reliability and validity

According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:227), reliability refers to the consistency of measurement, which is, the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument or occasions of data collecting. A highly reliable instrument (Cates 1985: 124) can be depended upon to produce the same, or nearly same, score when administered twice to the same subject or when administered to two subjects of equivalent talent and experience. To ensure consistency of measurement in the current investigation, the researcher administered the instruments to subjects of similar educational and professional backgrounds.

Validity is the degree to which scientific explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:601). A measurement instrument (Cates1985:123) is valid if it measures or represents what it claims to measure or represent. In the case of this investigation, the survey instrument was used to assess the lived experiences of the participants as women HoDs in universities. Thus the items on the questionnaire were all related to this phenomenon of interest. Questionnaires were posted overland to all participants.

In quantitative research, reliability refers to the consistency of the instrument and test administration in the study (McMillan & Schumacher1993:385). To enhance reliability the survey instrument was administered during the same time period to all participants.

4.4.3 The Interview

4.4.3.1 Sample population and sample size.

Out of a sample of twelve HoDs, nine participated in the study. The procedure for the selection of the interview sample was the same as that of the survey sample. Female HoDs were selected from a total of six universities; four in South Africa and two in the UK (see *4.5.2.1*).

4.4.3.2 Selection of participants and the role of the researcher

As already mentioned in the survey section*(4.4.2.2)*, the pool of participants for this study was not sufficiently large to permit random sampling procedures, although randomisation is preferred as it minimises selection bias (Krueger & Casey 2000:83). Therefore participants were chosen by means of 'purposeful' sampling, which is a strategy to choose small groups or individuals likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena of interest (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:413)., The criteria used for selection are outlined below.

The participants were selected because of their position and their years of service in that capacity. They were all female heads of academic departments who had been such for at least two years. For the focus group interview, participants were selected from a similar pool to that which completed the questionnaire. However, care was taken to ensure that heads of traditionally male oriented disciplines were included. Nine women participated in the VConf-FGI.

The role of the researcher in the interviews was that of moderator and facilitator. Her tasks included co-ordinating the group and ensuring that participants knew what was expected of them; as well as guiding the discussion and keeping it on track, while allowing for participant freedom to discuss the topics fully.

4.4.3.3 Locating participants

Qualitative researchers normally locate possible interviewees through the use of records, an informal network, or nomination (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:413). In the present study, participants for the VConf-FGI were first located through telephone contact with a human resources department person who then recommended another key person to contact – usually the faculty officer/manager. The faculty officer/manager furnished the names of possible participants and their contact details. A telephone interview was then conducted with the possible participant to ascertain whether she met the required criteria as set out above. Only those who met the criteria were invited to participate in the

VConf-FGI. They were informed of the purpose of the study and the kind of involvement that would be expected of them. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured as matter of course.

To locate suitable UK participants, the researcher visited the websites of the two selected universities, namely University of London and Bristol University. After a thorough search of each university's departments, a small number of female HoDs were found. Most of these were found at the University of London and only a few were found at Bristol University. Communication with all the UK participants was by email. The pool of prospective participants was very small to start with, and it shrunk even further when no responses were received from some of the HoDs. Eventually, three accepted the invitation to participate in the study.

4.4.3.4 Instrument development

Questioning route/interview schedule for the VConf-FGI

The questioning route (Krueger 1994:56) for the VConf-FGI is a sequence of questions in complete sentences. This format was selected because it would ensure consistency in questioning and make analysis more efficient. The development of the questioning route was based on key issues (already addressed in the questionnaire) which needed further elaboration and in-depth exploration. The issues were: career planning; motivation for accepting their current job; challenges of the job; skills and abilities required in the job and perceived barriers to advancement. As with the questionnaire, the development of the questioning route takes into consideration the objectives of the study when questions are constructed. An attempt was made to relate the questions directly to the objectives of the study (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:251). No more than three questions were constructed to investigate each issue. Where necessary, only one open-ended question was asked. All the questions were semi-structured to allow for individual responses.

Normally, after questions have been constructed, they should be handed over to experienced people. This is done to check for potential problems and to ensure that they are free of any bias such as that which might be caused by leading questions, ambiguity

and technique. A leading question causes a respondent to be more aware of one response than another (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:252). In the present study, the questioning route was forwarded to experts familiar with focus group interviewing for review. The feedback obtained was then incorporated in the construction of the final questioning route which was then pre-tested on a small group of people with similar characteristics to those of the research participants.

A letter of invitation was sent out to each of the potential participants following a telephone interview to ascertain suitability. Details contained in the letter included: the purpose of the study and the focus group interview; a statement about the significance of the participant's contribution; an indication that the interview schedule would be sent out at a later stage as well as contact details (see appendix).

4.4.3.5 Data collection

The VConf-FGIs were conducted during March, April and May 2006.

All the contributors in the VConf-FGIs received a personalized invitation to participate. In the case of South African universities, the researcher made a preliminary phone call to each selected institution. Faculty officers or managers from each faculty were requested to furnish the researcher with information regarding the presence of female HoDs within the faculty, together with the contact details of these HoDs. At a later stage, the researcher telephoned each HoD and briefly interviewed them to establish their suitability and willingness to participate in the study. Newly appointed HoDs were excluded as they would not have had sufficient experience as HoDs to provide rich data. Only those who had at least two years' experience were eventually invited by email to take part in the VConf-FGI. A total of nine women participated in the VConf-FGIs.

The first video conference focus group session involved three centres: University of Pretoria, University of the Western Cape and Bristol University. Four participants took part in the session. The second session involved two centres : London Imperial and University of Cape Town. Two participants took part in the session. The third session

also involved two campuses of the University of Fort Hare: Alice campus and East London campus. Two participants were involved. The fourth and final session involved one centre: London King's College. There was one participant at this session because her schedule made it impossible for her to participate in any of the other sessions. The process of setting the date involved first finding a week day when the researcher would also be free. Permission was then sought from each centre's video conference facility manager for the use of the facilities. Once availability was established, this was communicated to the participants and an email reminder was sent two weeks prior to the session. One week before the session, the interview schedule was emailed to each participant so that she would familiarise herself with the topics to be discussed. This ensured that everybody was fully prepared for the interview.

Prior to each interview session, a test call was scheduled to test the link between the centres. This is a vital exercise because it is at this time that any problems can be detected and corrected. The test dates were set and tentatively confirmed approximately a week in advance to allow for any necessary adjustments before final confirmation.

All the interview sessions were conducted in the morning and lasted two hours. Each session began at the same time. So this necessitated synchronising South African time with UK time, and communicating the exact time of the link with everyone involved. The initial plan had been to conduct three VConf-FGI's, but, as already indicated, it was not possible to accommodate one of the UK participants on any of the planned dates. A separate session had to be scheduled for her alone. Thus there were four sessions.

Normally, a multi-conference unit requires participating centres to call through to the originating centre using the IP (Internet Protocol) number provided. However, as this focus group interview was for study purposes, the originating centre made the link to each participating centre's ISDN (Integrated Services Digital Network) number. Once the link to each centre had been achieved, and the participants were all on the screen, the researcher began each interview session by greeting and welcoming everyone to the session. Brief introductions were made and the participants were given a chance to get to know each other a little before the purpose of the VConf-FGI was reiterated to the

participants. The researcher also ensured that everyone had brought the interview guide along for ease of reference. Because the time was limited to two hours, and there was more than one participant, it was more efficient to follow the interview guide so that everyone had a chance to say something on each topic. For the first few topics, participants shared their experiences in a round the table sort of way with the researcher facilitating the process.

Later the procedure changed and participants were allowed to participate in any order, but still following the order of the topics in the interview schedule and ensuring everyone had a chance before the discussion moved to the next topic. The researcher's role during the interviews was two-fold: to facilitate the session and ensure that minimum digression from the topic occurred, and to remark on issues raised and invite further comments and elaborations. The interviews were video-recorded from start to finish. In addition copious notes were taken. At the end of each interview, the videotape was played back to see how the interview had progressed, what data had been generated and to modify subsequent sessions.

4.4.3.6 Data analysis

Analysis began as soon as the first VConf- FGI was completed. To borrow Lee's and Fielding's (2004:533) words, the interview was mostly 'topic oriented' with the focus on identifying themes emerging from the data. An adaptation of Krueger's and Casey's (2000) transcript based data capturing and analysis procedure was followed *(see 4.2.3.2)*. At the end of each interview session, notes that had been taken during the interview were examined for key themes and these were written out according to topic, and filed. The videotape was played back to listen for, and to note, any patterns in the interview procedure and discussion which could be incorporated into subsequent sessions. At the end of all four interview sessions there were two data sets. A set of key points and a videotape of each session. The videotapes were manually transcribed verbatim, handwritten and filed according to session date. The transcription process took 12 to 16 hours per two hours of videotape.

When the manual transcription was complete, the handwritten transcripts were typed and merged into one document arranged according to topic, with the participants' responses listed in order of their turns during the interview.

This permitted easy access to all the participants' contributions to a topic and facilitated identification of similarities and differences in their experiences of each phenomenon of interest. At this stage, gaps in some participants' responses were noted. In cases where there were more than three gaps, especially of crucial information, the participant was immediately followed up with an email request to complete the information. All the participants obliged and the information was inserted into the blank spaces.

The typed transcript was printed out to allow close reading and examination of key issues emerging from the data. Highlighters of different colours were used to mark dominant themes as they emerged. Patterns which unfolded were noted in the margins and any striking or interesting point was noted. Responses that made a clear statement were also noted to use as quotes. When marking of the transcript was complete, another file was opened with a list of all noteworthy aspects identified under each topic, both in the interview data and the survey qualitative data.

The qualitative data were subjected to thematic coding and analysis. Presentation of findings included verbatim comments to illustrate significant themes that were identified.

4.4.3.7 Reliability and validity

In qualitative research, reliability refers to the consistency of the researcher's interactive style, data recording, data analysis, and interpretation of the responses (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:385). To enhance reliability, McMillan and Schumacher (1993:231) suggest, that it is best to establish standard conditions of data collection. All subjects should be given the same directions, have the same time frame in which to answer questions at the same time; the survey instrument must be appropriate in reading level and language. The maximum time to complete the instrument should be one hour.

However, the nature of the present investigation necessitated setting a standard duration time of two hours.

Before the survey instrument was administered, it was piloted and refined with the help of experts. The participants were then interviewed in similar conditions, such as, starting time, duration of interview, interview schedule and role of researcher. In addition, to ensure reliability and validity of the data, the interview was recorded on video whilst further notes were taken. Every effort was made by the researcher to establish rapport with the contributors under professional conditions.

Participants openly shared their experiences with minimum interruption from the researcher. The sessions were highly interactive and occurred within a very relaxed atmosphere. Where information was incomplete or unclear, the researcher emailed the participant for verification. In one case a participant had missed out several turns during the focus group interview. She later sent her contributions by email.

The reliability of the interview schedule used for this investigation was enhanced by specifying the role of the researcher, participant location and selection, data collection and analysis strategies. These are some of the aspects of research design which, if explicitly specified, enable other researchers to discover similar phenomena. The description of these aspects in the design of the study enhances reliability in qualitative research and reduces threat (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:385-387). All these factors were taken into consideration before the instrument was administered.

Content validity was also considered. Cates (1985:123) explains how the validity of an instrument is determined. It is determined by considering the content which might have been included; the use to which the instrument will be put, the way in which items were selected for inclusion and the way in which the instrument designer confirmed that the included items cover the desired content adequately. In the present study, this was ensured through the revision and refinement of the instrument before and after the pilot phase. The items were analysed for relevance by relating them to the list of variables established at the beginning of the instrument development. Care was taken to ensure that

the items covered every concept and that duplication or excessive coverage of any concept was avoided. During qualitative data analysis, the researcher contacted some of the VConf-FGI participants to request missing information and to clarify and confirm information.

4.5 LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

The aim of the present study is to increase understanding of the management experiences of a particular group of people, that is, academic women HoDs. These are generally a limited number because of their under-representation in the academe. Consequently, random sampling was not feasible as that would have further reduced an already small pool of prospective participants. Generalisation of the findings may therefore be restricted. Results from the analyses should be regarded as investigative and indicative of possible trends or relationships. Larger samples are required to confirm trends observed in the current restricted dataset. However, as Krueger and Casey (2000: 83) point out, the intent of focus groups is not to infer but to understand, not to generalise but to determine the range, and not to make statements about the population but to provide insights about how people in the groups perceive a situation. The design of the present study combines quantitative and qualitative methods and includes demographically representative participants. That in itself should yield insights of sufficient generalisability to the population of women academic managers.

4.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter the rationale for choice of a quantitative approach, with a combined quantitative and qualitative data collection methodology, is described. The survey method, as the selected non-experimental method, was explained, as was the development and pre-testing of the quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. The procedures used for finding participants and for data collection, analysis and presentation were explained. The discussion of the findings is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the researcher presented the background of this study of women in management in universities in South Africa and the UK. She pointed out that women are generally under-represented in positions of management and leadership. The impetus for the study was discussed and the literature on leadership and management in universities was presented. This included the statistical overview of women's under-representation in professional and non-professional categories; challenges to women in educational leadership in higher education including obstacles to women advancement and the 'new managerialism' and how it affects women in management and leadership. The research methodology and design of the present study was described in chapter 4. The rationale for the choice of a combined quantitative and qualitative research methodology was also presented in the chapter.

The findings from the survey questionnaires and the video conference focus group interviews are presented and discussed in this chapter. A synthesis of key findings from both methods of data collection follows.

From the outset it must be made clear that the present study is of an exploratory nature and has a restricted dataset. Results forthcoming from the analyses should therefore be regarded as investigative and indicative of possible trends or patterns. Larger samples will eventually be required to confirm trends observed in the current dataset. In relevant cases in this particular analysis, comparisons will be made with Seagren et al's (1994) study of chairpersons in community colleges. Seagren et al's study examined four areas of chairperson's (referred to as chairs') professional lives. These were personal characteristics, responsibilities, challenges, and strategies. The study involved 3000 academic leaders (deans and chairs') in community colleges across the United States and Canada (1994: ix). Some of the issues explored in the present study, such as challenges and strategies, role perceptions and skills use Seagren et al's study. Therefore an attempt is made to highlight consistency/inconsistency in the findings of the two studies on the

common issues listed above. Where relevant cross references are made with findings from other studies and, in particular, with the complementary qualitative part of the study. The findings of the qualitative part of the study are compared with those of the survey and cross-referenced with other similar studies in the literature, chief of which is Gupton's and Slick's (1996) study of 300 randomly selected top-level female administrators in public school education in the United States. These women shared their common experiences as women in educational leadership positions (1996:xxxviii).

5.2 PRESENTATION OF SURVEY FINDINGS

5.2.1 Characteristics and background data of participants

In this section the researcher presents a summary of biographical data concerning the participants' personal and academic backgrounds, employment details, department profile, and career preparation and advancement opportunities.

The following is a frequency table for selected biographical variables for South Africa, UK and a combined South Africa and UK.

Table 5.1: Frequency Table for selected biographical variables

Variables		SA=15		UK=8		COMBINED=23	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Age	35-40	1	6.67	0	00.00	1	4.35
	41-45	5	33.33	0	00.00	5	21.74
	46-50	4	26.67	1	12.50	5	21.74
	51-55	4	26.67	3	37.50	7	30.43
	55+	1	6.67	4	50.00	5	21.74
Level of education	Honours	1	6.67	0	00.00	1	4.35
	Masters	6	40.00	0	00.00	6	26.09
	Doctorate	8	53.33	8	100.00	16	69.57

Academic rank	Lecturer	3	20.00	0	00.00	3	13.04
	Senior lecturer	2	13.33	2	25.00	4	17.39
	Ass. Professor	4	26.67	1	12.50	5	21.74
	Professor	6	40.00	5	62.50	11	47.83
Marital status	Single	3	20.00	0	00.00	0	13.04
	Married	11	73.33	7	87.50	18	78.26
	Divorced	1	6.67	1	12.50	2	8.70
Race	Black	2	14.29	0	00.00	2	11.11
	White	12	85.71	8	100.00	21	91.43
Language	English	8	57.14	8	100.00	16	69.55
	Afrikaans	4	28.57	0	00.00	4	88.24
	isiXhosa	1	7.14	0	00.00	1	94.12
	seTswana	1	7.14	0	00.00	1	100.00
Years as HoD	<1	1	6.67	2	25.00	3	13.04
	1-3	8	53.33	4	50.00	12	52.17
	4-6	5	33.33	1	12.50	6	26.09
	>6	1	6.67	1	12.50	2	8.70
Years in institution	1-5	4	26.67	2	25.00	6	26.09
	6-10	2	13.33	2	25.00	4	17.39
	11-15	4	26.67	2	25.00	6	26.09
	16-20	5	33.33	1	12.50	6	26.09
	20+	0	00.00	1	12.50	1	4.35
Career advancement	Yes	5	35.71	4	57.14	9	42.86
	No	9	64.29	3	42.86	12	57.1

Twenty three women participated in the quantitative survey. Their ages ranged from 35-40 to just over 55, with the majority between ages 51-55, representing 52.17% of women older than 50 and 47.83% younger than 50. The UK participants accounted for the majority of women over 50 while SA accounted for the majority over 40**.** This appears to indicate that the two countries differ in the time it takes for women to rise to the position of HoD or other senior management position. Whereas in South Africa the pace seems to be faster as more women below age 50 are already in HoD positions, the UK seems to be

slower, suggesting that it takes longer for women there to climb the academic management ladder. Academic qualifications ranged from honours to doctorate with the majority, 69.57%, holding doctoral degrees and only 4.35% holding honours qualifications. All UK participants in this study hold doctoral degrees whereas some SA participants in HoD positions hold an honours or masters qualification with the majority holding doctorates. Two of the UK participants are currently in positions higher than HoD, but have previous experience in academic management positions. One is currently faculty principal and the other dean.

As far as academic rank goes, 47.83 per cent of the participants are full professors and the rest are below this. South Africa accounts for more participants below full professor rank than the UK**.** This seems to reflect that although UK universities may be slower in promoting women into management positions, the women advance faster on the academic rank ladder and as far as this study shows, the opposite seems to be the case in SA universities. All but two of the women are white. Five women are Afrikaans speaking, one is Xhosa speaking and one is Setswana and the rest are English speaking. Six of the women are from the UK and the rest from South Africa. Although an attempt was made to increase the number of black women participants, numerous follow-ups failed to get responses from three of the five who had been selected. At the time of the survey, eighteen women were married, two were divorced and three were single.

5.2.2 Employment details, department profile and staffing profile

Twelve of the women had held the position for at least 3years, six for4 to 6 years, while two had more than 6 years' experience and only three had been in the position for at least a year. All the women were employed on a permanent basis and had been with the same institution for at least five years, with one woman having been with the same institution for more than twenty years. Seventeen of the women were on fixed term positions ranging from less than three to more than three years, and all but two received a salary for the position.

The majority of the women, eleven, worked an average of fifty plus office hours per week and between eleven and twenty hours on average per week at home (a total of 60-70 hours per week). This is consistent with Smith's (2002) report in which he also cites consistency with findings in his 1996b and Deem's (2000) studies.

The number of students in the departments headed by the women ranged from 200 to 1000. Full time lecturers ranged from less than eleven in the majority of cases, to more than fifty in two cases. In the majority of cases, the number of full-time female lecturers, part-time lecturers, and support personnel was less than eleven.

5.2.3 Motivation, career preparation and advancement opportunities

Of the 23 women participants, 21 were encouraged by colleagues to apply for the HoD position, and twenty attributed their rise to the position of HoD to self-motivation. Family support was cited by fourteen women as one of the factors which had helped them advance to their present position, while ten women were assisted by their involvement in managerial work. While publications and qualifications played a major role in helping the women get to the position of HoD in thirteen and eighteen cases respectively, employment equity and encouragement by a mentor did not. Only six of the twenty three women had mentors. Five of the mentors were female and one was male.

On the question of formal preparation, only four women (17.39%) out of twenty three said they had formal preparation for the position of HoD. Three of these were UK participants and one was South African. The rest did not have any formal preparation and one woman did not respond. Three of the four women received managerial training offered by the university and one had self-initiated managerial training. Asked if they had any specific steps or actions to advance further in their academic career, nine women (42.86%) responded positively. Twelve of the women (57.1%) had no specific plans to further their career, and two did not respond. Further investigation revealed that most of the women who had no specific designs to advance their careers were either due to retire soon or had already reached the top of the ladder in their academic rank and qualifications**.** For one of the women, this was her second career and so she had a late

start in academia and was about to retire at the time of this study. It is interesting to note that the majority of the women who had definite plans to advance in their careers were full professors and some were in the age group 51-55**.** This appears to suggest that some women academics are determined to advance even in the latter part of their working lives. The section which follows presents the results for sections D-L of the questionnaire. For each section, the following are presented:

- frequency table on each questionnaire item
- summary table of sub-item means
- an ordered combined frequency table.

A final summary of results tables the cross-tabulations between the variables of age, HoD experience, teaching experience at current institutions. The various managerial issues regarding woman in HoD positions are also presented as a separate table at the end. Although a chi-square test was calculated for each of the rank-ordered frequency tables in each section, only significant results are reported.

5.2.4 Presentation and discussion of survey results

5.2.4.1 Importance of skills in the HoD position

Leadership in the twenty-first century demands different skills, the type it seems, most commonly associated with women (see 2.3.2). As an academic leader in this new age, a woman needs academic leadership and management skills to effectively carry out the responsibilities required of her position. She must be able, for instance, to utilise appropriate skills in dealing with conflict in the department or in handling staff and student problems, or in representing staff to management.

In the questionnaire, participants were presented with various skills identified in the literature as desired for the effective functioning of heads and chairs. They were asked to rate the importance of these skills to them in their present position as HoD.

The results are presented in Tables 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4**.** In the MEANS Table, a mean value close to one indicates a specific skill being rated as significant. A mean value close to five indicates a specific value being rated as unimportant.

Table 5.2: Frequency Table for importance of skills in HoD position

Item	**Skills**					
Frequency	**very important**	**important**	**neutral**	**Not important**	**not very important**	**Total**
Verbal	18	3	0	0	0	21
Written	18	5	0	0	0	23
Listening	19	4	0	0	0	23
Empathising	15	6	2	0	0	23
Empowering	21	1	1	0	0	23
Collaboration	17	5	0	0	0	22
Problem solving	17	5	1	0	0	23
Conflict resolution	18	4	1	0	0	23
Stress management	15	5	3	0	0	23
Organisational	18	4	1	0	0	23
Team building	18	4	1	0	0	23
Decisiveness	17	6	0	0	0	23
Negotiating	16	6	1	0	0	23
Lobbying	8	9	5	0	1	23
Entrepreneurial	5	8	10	0	0	23
Research	11	4	6	1	0	22
Teaching	10	7	5	0	1	23
Advocacy	8	10	4	0	0	22
Delegation	13	8	1	0	1	23
Mediation	11	10	2	0	0	23
Working with support staff	12	9	1	0	1	23
record keeping	11	8	2	1	1	23
Creating vision	19	2	1	1	0	23
Resources management	13	7	3	0	0	23
Leading	20	1	2	0	0	23
Understanding headship role	16	6	1	0	0	23
Total	384	147	54	3	5	593
Frequency missing = 5						

Table 5.3: MEANS Table for importance of skills

Analysis Variables: importance of skills					
Item	N obs	mean	Minimum	Maximum	std dev
Verbal	23	1.1429	1.0000	2.0000	0.3586
Written	23	1.2174	1.0000	2.0000	0.4217
Listening	23	1.1739	1.0000	2.0000	0.3876
Empathising	23	1.4348	1.0000	3.0000	0.6624
Empowering others	23	1.1304	1.0000	3.0000	0.4577
Collaboration	23	1.2273	1.0000	2.0000	0.4289
Problem solving	23	1.3043	1.0000	3.0000	0.5588
Conflict resolution	23	1.2609	1.0000	3.0000	0.5408
Stress management	23	1.4783	1.0000	3.0000	0.7305
Organisational	23	1.2609	1.0000	3.0000	0.5408
Team building	23	1.2609	1.0000	3.0000	0.5408
Decisiveness	23	1.2609	1.0000	2.0000	0.4490
Negotiating	23	1.3478	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728
Lobbying	23	1.9565	1.0000	4.0000	0.8779
Entrepreneurial	23	2.2174	1.0000	3.0000	0.7952
Research	23	1.9091	1.0000	5.0000	1.1088
Teaching	23	1.8696	1.0000	4.0000	0.9197
Advocacy	23	1.8182	1.0000	3.0000	0.7327
Delegation	23	1.5652	1.0000	4.0000	0.7878
Mediation	23	1.6087	1.0000	3.0000	0.6564
Working with support staff	23	1.6087	1.0000	4.0000	0.7827
Record keeping	23	1.8261	1.0000	5.0000	1.0725
Creating a vision	23	1.3478	1.0000	5.0000	0.9346
Resources management	23	1.5652	1.0000	3.0000	0.7278
Leading	23	1.2174	1.0000	3.0000	0.5997
Understanding headship role	23	1.3478	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728

Table 5.4: Frequency Table for ordered combined items for importance of skills

Item	Frequency	Cumulative frequency
Decisiveness	23	23
Listening	23	46
Written	23	69
Collaboration	22	91
Conflict resolution	22	113
Empowering others	22	135
Negotiating	22	157
Organisational	22	179
Problem solving	22	201
Team building	22	223
Understanding headship role	22	245
Delegation	21	266
Empathising	21	287
Leading	21	308
Mediation	21	329
Working with support staff	21	350
Verbal	21	371
Creating vision	21	392
Resources management	20	412
Stress management	20	432
Record keeping	19	451
Advocacy	18	469
Lobbying	17	486
Teaching	17	503
Research	15	518
Entrepreneurial	13	531

By studying the general frequency table, it appears as though participants are undecided or neutral when it comes to the importance of entrepreneurial skills to HoD efficiency. There were ten neutral responses as opposed to substantially less neutral responses for the remainder of the skills.

Generally participants perceive the various skills as necessary and applicable to them in their HoD positions. This finding is consistent with Seagren et al's (1994:74) finding where chairs' overwhelmingly felt that all the skills identified were relevant to their work. However, the entrepreneurial skill is rated least important (with a frequency of 13) as opposed to skills of decisiveness, listening and written communication which all have frequencies of 23. These skills are regarded by the participants as most essential in their job. Seagren et al found that 'written communication' was rated as one of the most important skills. In the present study, other skills regarded as 'very important' or 'important' include, among others, 'collaboration' and 'empowering others' (see 2.2.2). Lowest ranked in importance, among others, are 'advocacy', 'lobbying', teaching, and research. Omar's 1996 study of women academic leaders in Malaysia had a similar finding as far as communication skills were concerned. Next in order of importance are the skills of 'collaboration', 'conflict resolution', 'empowering others', 'negotiating', 'organisational problem solving,', 'team building' and understanding the headship role (cf 2.2.2).

Table 5.3, which presents the mean response values, shows a mean value of 2.2174 for entrepreneurial skill, and this appears to be higher than the majority of the other skills components which have a mean value close to one. The higher mean value for entrepreneurial skill indicates that participants do not regard this skill as important to their work as HoD, which is rather surprising, given the demands of the new age of management in which these women managers operate. However, this is consistent with Seagren et al's (1994:53) finding where 25.5per cent of the chairs' responding to the questionnaire perceived the entrepreneurial role as not important.

5.2.4.2 Perception of various skills level of participants in HoD position

Not only is it necessary for a HoD or chair to recognise the importance of various skills in her current job, but she also needs to be aware of her own level of ability to perform these skills.

Tucker (1984:387) notes, that the persons responsible for carrying out the essential functions of management must have a complete understanding of what management entails as well as certain interpersonal skills.

In this study, participants had to rate their perception of skill level from high to low (5 being very high and 1 being very low).

The results are displayed in Tables 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7.

For Table 5.6, a mean value close to one indicates that participants rate their skills poorly. A mean value close to five indicates that participants rate their skills very highly.

Table 5.5: Perception of various skills levels of participant in HoD position

Item	Skills					
Frequency	very high	high	Average	low	very low	Total
Verbal	4	16	3	0	0	23
Written	10	11	2	0	0	23
Listening	9	11	3	0	0	23
Empathising	8	13	2	0	0	23
Empowering others	9	9	5	0	0	23
Collaboration	8	12	2	0	0	22
Problem solving	10	12	1	0	0	23
Conflict resolution	4	10	7	2	0	23
Organisational ability	8	11	4	0	0	23
Stress management	1	8	11	3	0	23
Team building	7	9	6	1	0	23
Decisiveness	10	6	5	2	0	23
Negotiating	8	12	2	0	1	23
Lobbying	2	7	9	3	2	23
Entrepreneurial skills	1	3	14	5	0	23
Research	8	5	10	0	0	23
Teaching	7	12	4	0	0	23
Advocacy	3	11	5	3	0	22
Delegation	2	7	11	3	0	23
Mediation	2	11	9	0	1	23
Support staff	10	10	2	0	0	22
Record keeping	4	6	8	5	0	23
Visionary	7	9	7	0	0	23
Resources management	5	9	8	1	0	23
Leading	8	11	4	0	0	23
Understanding headship role	9	9	5	0	0	23
Total	164	250	149	28	4	595
Frequency missing = 3						

Table 5.6: MEANS table for skills perception

Analysis variable : skills					
	N obs	mean	minimum	maximum	std dev
Verbal	23	4.0435	3.0000	5.0000	0.5623
Written	23	4.3478	3.0000	5.0000	0.6473
Listening	23	4.2609	3.0000	5.0000	0.6887
Empathising	23	4.2609	3.0000	5.0000	0.6192
Empowering	23	4.1739	3.0000	5.0000	0.7777
Collaboration	23	4.2727	3.0000	5.0000	0.6311
Problem solving	23	4.3913	3.0000	5.0000	0.5830
Conflict resolve	23	3.6957	2.0000	5.0000	0.8757
Organisational	23	4.1739	3.0000	5.0000	0.7168
Stress management	23	3.3043	2.0000	5.0000	0.7648
Team building	23	3.9565	2.0000	5.0000	0.8779
Decisiveness	23	4.0435	2.0000	5.0000	1.0215
Negotiating	23	4.1304	1.0000	5.0000	0.9197
Lobbying	23	3.1739	1.0000	5.0000	1.0725
Entrepreneurial	23	3.0000	2.0000	5.0000	0.7385
Research	23	3.9130	3.0000	5.0000	0.9002
Teaching	23	4.1304	3.0000	5.0000	0.6944
Advocacy	23	3.6364	2.0000	5.0000	0.9021
Delegation	23	3.3478	2.0000	5.0000	0.8317
Mediation	23	3.5652	1.0000	5.0000	0.8435
Support staff	23	4.3636	3.0000	5.0000	0.6580
Record keeping	23	3.3913	2.0000	5.0000	1.0331
Visionary	23	4.0000	3.0000	5.0000	0.7977
Resources management	23	3.7826	2.0000	5.0000	0.8505
Leading	23	4.1739	3.0000	5.0000	0.7168
Understanding headship role	23	4.1739	3.0000	5.0000	0.7777

Table 5.7: Frequency Table for ordered combined items for perception of skill level

Item	frequency	Cumulative frequency
Problem solving	66	66
Empathising	63	129
Written	63	192
Collaboration	60	252
Listening	60	312
Negotiating	60	372
Support staff	60	432
Verbal	60	492
Leading	57	549
Organisational	57	606
Teaching	57	663
Empowering	54	717
Understanding headship role	54	771
Decisiveness	48	819
Team building	48	867
Visionary	48	915
Advocacy	42	957
Conflict resolution	42	999
Resources management	42	1041
Mediation	39	1080
Research	39	1119
Record keeping	30	1149
Delegation	27	1176
Lobbying	27	1203
Stress management	27	1230
Entrepreneurial	12	1242

As shown in Table 5.5**,** a number of participants are unsure about their skills level, particularly ‘entrepreneurial’ skills (14 ‘average’ responses); ‘delegation’ and ‘stress management’ (11 ‘average’ responses each). But they are more confident with their ability in ‘problem solving’ (only 1 ‘average’ response).

The MEAN response values in Table 5.6, indicate that most skills are rated very highly. Skills that are rated ‘average’ include, among others, ‘conflict resolution’, ‘stress

management', 'entrepreneurial'(rated lowest mean =3.000), 'lobbying', 'resources management' 'record keeping', 'mediation', 'delegation', 'advocacy', 'research', and 'team building'.

When the frequency of 'very high' and 'high' responses are combined and rank ordered, this is what emerges. 'Problem solving' is ranked highest (66 being the combined frequency total). This is followed by 'empathising' and ''written communication' (each with a combined frequency total of 63). 'Collaboration', 'listening', 'negotiating', 'working with support staff', and 'verbal communication' each have a combined frequency total of 60. At the bottom of the ranking order are ' entrepreneurial' skills (combined frequency total of 12) followed by 'stress management', 'lobbying' and 'delegation' (combined frequency total of 27). What stands out in these results is the consistency of participants' perceptions regarding entrepreneurial skills. This skill is not only rated least important, but it is also rated very poorly. A possible explanation could be that the business side of the HoD's work may be taken care of by a different office in the institution. However, skills in 'stress management' and 'delegation' ought to be reinforced in training workshops so as to develop participants' confidence and ability to deal with stress.

5.2.4.3 Extent of various job challenges posed to HoD

Bennett (1998:134) identifies three major transitions experienced by new HoDs:

▪firstly, the HoD has to change from focusing on her own discipline to representing a broader range of inquiries within the department

- secondly, the HoD has to shift from being an individual to looking at whole departmental operations – thus expanding the span on responsibility
- thirdly, the HoD has to expand her loyalties to the broader campus enterprise.

The challenge for the HoD then is to know about other inquiries, departments and schools and to be aware of the multiple contributions and activities of the institution and to situate the department within this larger context.

Participants in this study had to indicate the extent to which they agreed that a given number of items were challenges to them in their job situation, using the scale: 1 'strongly agree' and 5 'strongly disagree'. The results are displayed in Tables 5.8, 5.9, and 5.10. In Table 5.9, a mean value close to one indicates that participants strongly agree on the relevance of the challenge. A mean value close to five indicates that participants disagree on the relevance of the challenge.

Table 5.8: Frequency Table for job challenges

Frequency Table for job challenges						
Item	**Extent of agreement**					
Frequency	**strongly agree**	**agree**	**Undecided**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**	**Total**
Accreditation programmes	4	8	6	3	2	23
Gender equity	7	5	1	9	1	23
Racial justice	7	5	2	8	1	23
Family/career balance	8	9	3	2	1	23
Cultural diversity	7	10	1	5	0	23
Diverse student population needs	11	8	1	2	0	22
Program quality assessment	7	10	3	3	0	23
Maintaining programme quality	11	8	2	2	0	23
Accountability	8	8	3	2	1	22
Quality assurance	7	9	4	3	0	23
Quality assurance measures	7	9	2	3	0	21
Strengthening curriculum	16	4	2	0	0	22
Financial constraints	7	7	5	2	1	22
Teaching effectiveness	7	9	5	2	0	23
Staff problems	8	8	2	5	0	23
Dept. data management	5	8	5	4	0	22
Unsatisfactory staff performance	7	9	3	3	0	22
Team spirit	7	10	4	2	0	23
Building networks	7	10	4	2	0	23
Creativity & initiative	10	9	2	2	0	23
Office administration	5	6	6	5	1	23
Personnel management	6	9	3	4	1	23
Total	169	178	69	73	9	498
Frequency missing = 8						

Table 5.9: MEANS Table for extent of job challenges

Item	n obs	mean	Minimum	maximum	std dev
Accreditation programmes	23	2.6087	1.0000	5.0000	1.1962
Gender equity	23	2.6522	1.0000	5.0000	1.4016
Racial justice	23	2.6087	1.0000	5.0000	1.3731
Family/career balance	23	2.0870	1.0000	5.0000	1.1246
Cultural diversity	23	2.1739	1.0000	4.0000	1.1140
Diverse student population needs	23	1.7273	1.0000	4.0000	0.9351
Program quality assessment	23	2.0870	1.0000	4.0000	0.9960
Maintaining program quality	23	1.7826	1.0000	4.0000	0.9514
Accountability	23	2.0909	1.0000	5.0000	1.1509
Quality assurance	23	2.1304	1.0000	4.0000	1.0137
Quality assurance measures	23	2.0476	1.0000	4.0000	1.0235
Strengthening curriculum	23	1.3636	1.0000	3.0000	0.6580
Financial constraints	23	2.2273	1.0000	5.0000	1.1519
Teaching effectiveness	23	2.0870	1.0000	4.0000	0.9493
Staff problems	23	2.1739	1.0000	4.0000	1.1541
Dept. data management	23	2.3636	1.0000	4.0000	1.0486
Unsatisfactory staff Performance	23	2.0909	1.0000	4.0000	1.0193
Team spirit	23	2.0435	1.0000	4.0000	0.9283
Building networks	23	2.0435	1.0000	4.0000	0.9283
Creativity & initiative	23	1.8261	1.0000	4.0000	0.9367
Office admin	23	2.6087	1.0000	5.0000	1.1962
Personnel management	23	2.3478	1.0000	5.0000	1.1912

Table 5.10: Table for ordered combined job challenges frequencies

Item	frequency	Cumulative frequency
Strengthening curriculum	20	20
Creativity & initiative	19	39
Diverse student population needs	19	58
Maintaining programme quality	19	77
Building networks	17	94
Cultural diversity	17	111
Family/career balance	17	128
Program quality assessment	17	145
Team spirit	17	162
Accountability	16	178
Quality assurance	16	194
Quality assurance measures	16	210
Staff problems	16	226
Teaching effectiveness	16	242
Unsatisfactory staff performance	16	258
Personnel management	15	273
Financial constraints	14	287
Departmental data management	13	300
Accreditation programs	12	312
Gender equity	12	324
Racial justice	12	336
Office administration	11	347

By studying the frequency distribution of responses concerning job challenges (Table 5.8), it appears that ‘strengthening the curriculum’ presents the greatest challenge for the participants (16 ‘strongly agree’ responses). Other challenges are ‘catering for diverse student population needs’ and ‘maintaining programme quality’ (11 ‘strongly agree’ responses each). However, the general impression is that participants do not feel ‘very strongly’ about the importance of certain challenges. For instance, they do not agree that

‘gender equity’ and ‘racial justice’ pose serious challenges to them in their position. The MEANS analysis (Table 5.9) confirms the observation that in general, participants do not seem to strongly agree on the relevance of the stated challenges. They do, however, find the following to be challenges: ‘diverse student population needs’(mean= 1.7273); ‘strengthening the curriculum’(mean= 1.3636); ‘maintaining programme quality’ (mean, 1.7826) and ‘creativity and initiative’ (mean= 1.8261). A similar trend is observed in Table 5.10 where the rank ordered combined frequencies point to the greatest challenges being ‘strengthening the curriculum’, ‘creativity and initiative’, ‘catering for diverse student population needs’ and ‘ maintaining programme quality’.

Contrary to findings, in these studies, that the tasks of ‘dealing with unsatisfactory staff performance’(Smith 2002), and ‘with difficult colleagues/department staff members (Ramsden 1998), are the most challenging tasks, participants in the present study did not perceive this task as a difficult challenge. This is evidenced by the relatively low extent of agreement given to the statement of challenge ‘dealing with difficult staff members’ (16 ‘strongly agree’ or ‘agree’, 5 ‘strongly disagree’ and 2 ‘undecided’).

A possible explanation for this difference may be attributed to women’s style of leadership and management which is generally regarded as collaborative, participative and nurturing. With this style of leadership a woman is probably likely to handle difficult members of staff or those not performing according to expectation more effectively. However, there is no empirical evidence yet to support the relationship between leadership style and staff performance/behaviour.

5.2.4.4 Strategies useful for addressing job challenges

Different institutions and departments and disciplines may present the HoD with a host of challenges which may be addressed in a variety of ways, depending on their nature. Whatever strategies are utilised (Seagren et al 1994:88), the chair must reflect on why they might be effective in a particular context.

On the questionnaire, participants had to indicate the extent to which they agreed that the strategies listed on the questionnaire would be useful to them in their current position when addressing the job challenges listed in the previous section. The results are shown in Tables 5.11, 5.12, and 5.13. In Table 5.12 a mean value close to one implies a specific strategy is perceived to be applicable and a mean value close to five implies a specific strategy is perceived to be less applicable.

Table 5.11: Frequency Table for strategies to address job challenges

Strategy	**Extent of agreement on usefulness**					
Frequency	**strongly agree**	**agree**	**undecided**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**	**Total**
Professional development workshops	7	10	4	1	1	23
Encouraging female participation	7	8	7	1	0	23
Deliberately seeking out members of other racial groups for development and promotion	8	11	3	1	0	23
Personal/professional balance	9	10	4	0	0	23
Transparency/fairness	17	6	0	0	0	23
Evaluating teaching and assessment techniques	7	10	5	0	0	22
Staff retention/nurturing	20	3	0	0	0	23
Leadership performance evaluation	5	12	4	1	0	22
Establishing support networks	12	7	3	1	0	23
Raising external funding	12	3	5	2	0	22
Specifying roles and responsibilities for HoD's	10	8	3	2	0	23
Leadership and management training and workshops	7	7	7	1	1	23
Flexible student admission procedures	1	5	7	8	0	21
Participating in social events and programmes focused on common areas of interest	1	13	6	3	0	23
Using consultants	0	2	11	7	3	23
Total	123	115	69	28	5	340
Frequency missing = 5						

Table 5.12: MEANS Table for strategies to address job challenges

Analysis variable : strategies					
Strategy	**N obs**	**mean**	**Minimum**	**maximum**	**std dev**
Professional development workshops	23	2.0870	1.0000	5.0000	1.0407
Encouraging female participation	23	2.0870	1.0000	4.0000	0.9002
Deliberately seeking out members of other racial groups for development and promotion	23	1.8696	1.0000	4.0000	0.8149
Personal/professional balance	23	1.7826	1.0000	3.0000	0.7359
Transparency/fairness	23	1.2609	1.0000	2.0000	0.4490
Evaluating teaching and assessment techniques	23	1.9091	1.0000	3.0000	0.7502
Staff retention/nurturing	23	1.1304	1.0000	2.0000	0.3444
Leadership performance evaluation	23	2.0455	1.0000	4.0000	0.7854
Establishing support networks	23	1.6957	1.0000	4.0000	0.8757
Raising external funding	23	1.8636	1.0000	4.0000	1.0821
Specifying roles and responsibilities for HoD's	23	1.8696	1.0000	4.0000	0.9679
Leadership and management training and workshops	23	2.2174	1.0000	5.0000	1.0853
Flexible student admission procedures	23	3.0476	1.0000	4.0000	0.9207
Participating in social events and programmes focused on common areas of interest	23	2.4783	1.0000	4.0000	0.7903
Using consultants	23	3.4783	2.0000	5.0000	0.8458

Table 5.13: Table for ordered combined frequencies for strategies to address job challenges

Strategy	frequency	cumulative frequency
Staff retention/nurturing	23	23
Transparency/fairness	23	46
Establishing support networks	19	65
Personal/professional balance	19	84
Deliberately seeking out members of other racial groups for development and promotion	19	103
Specifying roles and responsibilities for HoD's	18	121
Evaluating teaching and assessment techniques	17	138
Leadership performance evaluation	17	155
Professional development workshops	17	172
Encouraging female participation	15	187
Raising external funding	15	202
Leadership and management training and workshops	14	216
Participating in social events and programmes focused on common areas of interest	14	230
Flexible student admission procedures	6	236
Using consultants	2	238

The general frequency table (Table 5.11), seems to indicate that 'using flexible student admission procedures' and 'using consultants' as strategies for addressing HoD job challenges does not seem appropriate or applicable. What appear to be useful strategies, according to the participants, are 'staff retention/nurturing' as well as 'transparency /fairness'. An overwhelming number of participants, (20 or 87%) and (17 or 74%) 'strongly agree' on this. They also 'strongly agree' or 'agree' that HoD job challenges could be addressed by 'establishing support networks', ' balancing personal or professional activities' and 'deliberately seeking out members of other racial groups for development and promotion'(Table 5.13). This trend is borne out in the MEANS Table

(5.12) which indicates that ‘staff retention/nurturing’(mean=1.1304) is regarded as the most useful strategy for addressing HoD job challenges, while the opposite is true of ‘using consultants’(mean=3.4783).

5.2.4.5 Important aspects of leadership and management

Women are perceived as the future academic leadership for the twenty-first century. They are thought to have the sort of leadership skills in demand during this century, such as the ability to:

- empower others and fill them with enthusiasm
- build informal networks and coalitions
- be flexible and responsive to customer and client needs
- nurture and develop individuals
- be willing to share information and operate in an open and transparent manner
- articulate core values and so develop culture through the creation of shared meaning (cf 2.3.2)

Women are also perceived as having the type of communication skills appropriate for today’s rapidly transforming universities accompanied by changes in technology and globalisation of the economy (cf 2.3.2).

On the questionnaire participants were asked to indicate to what extent they thought given aspects of management and leadership were important to the leadership and management of their departments. The results are displayed in Tables 5.14, 5.15, and 5.16. In Table 5.15, a mean value close to one implies a specific aspect is regarded as important. A mean value close to five implies a particular feature is regarded as unimportant

Table 5.14: Frequency Table for importance of aspects of leadership and management

Item	Extent of importance				
Frequency	very important	important	neutral	not very important	Total
Cost efficiency	9	13	1	0	23
Value for money	8	13	1	0	22
Audit	3	12	6	1	22
Performance indicators	9	9	3	1	22
Intellectual development	16	6	1	0	23
Professionalism	19	3	1	0	23
Collaboration	16	6	1	0	23
Egalitarian collegiality	14	7	2	0	23
Performance, standards and improvement	11	9	2	0	22
Employment equity	12	7	4	0	23
Social justice, equity	11	7	5	0	23
Efficiency, individualism	10	7	5	1	23
Inspirational vision	15	7	1	0	23
Integrity, personal example and persistence	19	3	1	0	23
Creativity, autonomy	16	6	1	0	23
Power sharing	10	13	0	0	23
Delegating responsibilities	10	12	1	0	23
Broaden teaching approaches	7	13	2	0	22
Flexible programme entry/exit	1	11	5	4	21
Recognition of prior learning	2	12	4	3	21
Selective admissions policies	3	7	9	3	22
Student prep. business/industry	11	6	3	1	21
Concept of life-long learning	11	9	2	0	22
Academic development programmes	8	13	1	0	22
Total	251	211	62	14	538
Frequency missing = 14					

Table 5.15: MEANS Table for aspects of leadership and management

Item	n obs	Mean	minimum	maximum	std dev
Cost efficiency	23	1.6522	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728
Value-for- money	23	1.6818	1.0000	3.0000	0.5679
Auditing	23	2.2273	1.0000	4.0000	0.7516
Performance indicators	23	1.8182	1.0000	4.0000	0.8528
Intellectual development	23	1.3478	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728
Professionalism	23	1.2174	1.0000	3.0000	0.5184
Collaboration	23	1.3478	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728
Egalitarian collegiality	23	1.4783	1.0000	3.0000	0.6653
Performance	23	1.5909	1.0000	3.0000	0.6661
Employment equity	23	1.6522	1.0000	3.0000	0.7751
Social justice, equity	23	1.7391	1.0000	3.0000	0.8100
Efficiency, Individualism	23	1.8696	1.0000	4.0000	0.9197
Inspirational vision	23	1.3913	1.0000	3.0000	0.5830
Integrity, persistence	23	1.2174	1.0000	3.0000	0.5184
Creativity, autonomy	23	1.3478	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728
Power sharing	23	1.5652	1.0000	2.0000	0.5069
Delegating responsibilities	23	1.6087	1.0000	3.0000	0.5830
Broaden teaching approaches	23	1.7727	1.0000	3.0000	0.6119
Flexible programme entry/exit	23	2.5714	1.0000	4.0000	0.8701
Acknowledge prior learning	23	2.3810	1.0000	4.0000	0.8646
Selective admissions policies	23	2.5455	1.0000	4.0000	0.9117
Student preparation business/industry	23	1.7143	1.0000	4.0000	0.9024
Continual learning culture	23	1.5909	1.0000	3.0000	0.6661
Academic development programmes	23	1.6818	1.0000	3.0000	0.5679

Table 5.16: Table for ordered combined frequencies for aspects of leadership and management

	frequency	cumulative frequency
Power sharing	23	23
Collaboration	22	45
Cost efficiency	22	67
Creativity, autonomy	22	89
Delegating responsibilities	22	111
Inspirational vision	22	133
Integrity, personal example and persistence	22	155
Intellectual development	22	177
Professionalism	22	199
Academic development programmes	21	220
Egalitarian collegiality	21	241
Value for money	21	262
Broaden teaching approaches	20	282
Continual learning culture	20	302
Performance	20	322
Employment equity	19	341
Performance indicators	18	359
Social justice, equity	18	377
Efficiency, individualism	17	394
Student preparation business/industry	17	411
Auditing	15	426
Acknowledge prior learning	14	440
Flexible programme entry/exit	12	452
Selective admissions policies	10	462

An examination of the general frequency table (Table 5.14) shows that the features of leadership and management listed on the questionnaire were generally considered important to the leadership and management of departments. Participants perceived as 'very important' the aspects of 'power sharing', 'professionalism', 'integrity, personal example and persistence', whereas 'programme entry/exit', that is programmes designed with flexible entry and exit points, 'recognition of prior learning' and 'selective admissions policies' were not seen as 'very important'. It appears from these results that participants ascribe more importance to leadership and management aspects directly

related to them as individuals rather than to those outside their ambit such as issues of 'selective admissions policies' . Upon examination of the MEANS (Table 5.15), it appears that the above trend is sustained. The aspects of 'professionalism', and 'integrity, personal example and persistence' are perceived as 'very important, (mean=1.2174 for both), whereas 'flexible programme entry/exit' and 'selective admissions policies' are not regarded as 'important' (means=2.5714 and 2.5455 respectively). The rank ordered combined frequencies (Table 5.16) brings the leadership and management aspect of 'power sharing' to the top of the list of 'important' aspects, with all 23(100%) participants agreeing on its importance. This is not surprising, given that women in positions of power are generally predisposed to sharing power and information (cf 2.3.2). Following closely in order of importance with a combined ordered frequency of 22 (95.6%) are the aspects of 'collaboration', 'cost-efficiency' 'creativity', 'autonomy', 'delegating responsibilities', 'inspirational vision' and 'intellectual development'. It is interesting to not that 'delegating responsibilities' is perceived as an important aspect of leadership and management consistent with Lumby's (2003:287) observation on what constitutes leadership. She writes:

> Leadership is created partly by the conscious delegation or ad hoc dispersal of responsibility for tasks and partly by the way in which the resulting activities are executed.

The lowest ranked aspects are 'selective admissions policies' and 'auditing'. However, this is not surprising given that these functions are normally performed by other departments in the institution.

5.2.4.6 Tasks and functions

Several authors have described the roles and responsibilities of heads of academic departments. The most prominent on this subject, among others, is (Tucker 1984, Moses & Roe 1990). Although the responsibilities, tasks and functions they describe may differ in importance and emphasis from discipline to discipline (Robinson 1996), the person

responsible for carrying them out is expected to effectively accomplish the goals and objectives of the department and the institution (Tucker 1984).

On the questionnaire, participants had to indicate the degree of importance to their current position of a given list of tasks and functions. The results are shown in Tables 5.17, 5.8 and 5.19. A mean value close to one implies a specific skills-concept rated as important. A mean value close to five implies a specific skills-concept rated as not important.

Table 5.17: Frequency Table for importance of tasks and functions

Tasks and Functions						
Frequency	**very important**	**important**	**neutral**	**not very important**	**not important**	**Total**
Staff recruitment/selection	17	5	0	0	0	22
Promotion recommendations	18	2	2	0	0	22
Performance appraisal	16	6	0	0	0	22
Student recruitment	6	8	5	1	1	21
Seek external funding	9	8	5	0	0	22
Manage budget/resources	11	8	3	0	0	22
Foster good teaching	13	7	2	0	0	22
Promote staff development	14	8	0	0	0	22
Accreditation programmes	7	8	3	3	1	22
Market new programmes	6	8	4	4	0	22
Conduct dept meetings	10	7	3	2	0	22
Maintaining student database	7	6	5	1	2	21
Manage teaching/research	8	8	5	0	1	22
Report back to top management	16	6	1	0	0	23
Acquire management resources	10	6	5	0	0	21
Future departmental planning	16	5	1	0	0	22
Employment equity	11	8	2	1	0	22
Link to external groups	13	8	1	1	0	23
Record keeping assessment/auditing	7	8	4	2	1	22
Assign teaching responsibilities	7	10	4	0	1	22
Total	222	140	55	15	7	439
Frequency missing = 21						

Table 5.18: MEANS Table for tasks and functions

Analysis variable : skills					
Item	**n obs**	**mean**	**minimum**	**Maximum**	**std dev**
Staff recruitment/selection	23	1.2273	1.0000	2.0000	0.4289
Promotion recommendations	23	1.2727	1.0000	3.0000	0.6311
Performance appraisal	23	1.2727	1.0000	2.0000	0.4558
Student recruitment	23	2.1905	1.0000	5.0000	1.0779
Seek external funding	23	1.8182	1.0000	3.0000	0.7950
Manage budget/resources	23	1.6364	1.0000	3.0000	0.7267
Foster good teaching	23	1.5000	1.0000	3.0000	0.6726
Promote staff development	23	1.3636	1.0000	2.0000	0.4924
Accreditation programmes	23	2.2273	1.0000	5.0000	1.1925
Market new programmes	23	2.2727	1.0000	4.0000	1.0771
Conduct dept. meetings	23	1.8636	1.0000	4.0000	0.9902
Maintaining student database	23	2.2857	1.0000	5.0000	1.2705
Manage teaching/research	23	2.0000	1.0000	5.0000	1.0235
Report back to top management	23	1.3478	1.0000	3.0000	0.5728
Acquire management resources	23	1.7619	1.0000	3.0000	0.8309
Future departmental planning	23	1.3182	1.0000	3.0000	0.5679
Employment equity	23	1.6818	1.0000	4.0000	0.8387
Link to external groups	23	1.5652	1.0000	4.0000	0.7878
Record keeping assessment/auditing	23	2.1818	1.0000	5.0000	1.1396
Assign teaching responsibilities	23	2.0000	1.0000	5.0000	0.9759

Table 5.19: Table for ordered combined frequencies for tasks and functions

Item	frequency	cumulative frequency
Performance appraisal	22	22
Promote staff development	22	44
Report back to top management	22	66
Staff recruitment/selection	22	88
Future departmental planning	21	109
Link to external groups	21	130
Foster good teaching	20	150
Promotion recommendations	20	170
Employment equity	19	189
Manage budget/resources	19	208
Assign teaching responsibilities	17	225
Conduct dept meetings	17	242
Seek external funding	17	259
Acquire management resources	16	275
Manage teaching/research	16	291
Accreditation programmes	15	306
Record keeping assessment/auditing	15	321
Market new programmes	14	335
Student recruitment	14	349
Maintaining student database	13	362

By studying the general frequency table (Table 5.17), it appears that participants are in general agreement on the importance of the tasks and functions to their position as evidenced by the combined totals of 'very important' and 'important' responses. Tasks and functions to do with 'staff recruitment/selection', 'performance appraisal' and 'promoting staff development' were regarded as most important. This observation is confirmed in the MEANS analysis (Table 5.18), where tasks and functions each have a mean closest to one (1). The rank ordered tasks and functions (Table 5.19) also confirms the trend already observed in the previous two tables. In addition, 'reporting back to top management' emerges as another important task and function. Altogether four tasks and functions are regarded by the HoDs as important in their current position. These are already listed above. The following tasks and functions are at the bottom of the participants' list of magnitude:

- maintaining student database
- student recruitment
- marketing new programmes
- documenting all activities in the department for quality audit and assessment purposes
- developing new programmes for accreditation.

A possible explanation may be that these functions have devolved to special task teams and committees within the institution and are no longer directly performed by the HoD.

5.2.4.7 Role perception

Academic HoDs are expected to perform certain roles as part of their job. Some of these roles identified in the literature include:

- staff developer
- manager leader and scholar
- personnel manager
- source and distributor of resources
- administrator
- advocate and politician
- lobbyist and negotiator (cf 2.4.2.4).

The present study seeks to explore how women HoDs see the significance of certain roles in their current position. Twenty two roles were selected.

The results are displayed in Tables 5.20, 5.21 and 5.22. A mean value close to one (Table 5.21) implies a specific role is regarded as 'very important'. A mean value close to five implies a role is not regarded as important.

Table 5.20: Frequency Table for role perception

Table of frequency by role perception						
Role	**Perception**					
Frequency	**very important**	**important**	**neutral**	**not very important**	**not important**	**Total**
Advisor	13	8	1	0	1	23
Advocator	8	12	3	0	0	23
Communicator	20	2	1	0	0	23
Conflict resolver	14	7	2	0	0	23
Coordinator	11	10	1	1	0	23
Decision maker	17	6	0	0	0	23
Delegator	9	12	2	0	0	23
Entrepreneur	3	8	11	1	0	23
Evaluator	6	12	3	1	0	22
Innovator	13	9	1	0	0	23
Leader	19	3	1	0	0	23
Manager	9	12	1	1	0	23
Mentor	9	12	1	0	1	23
Motivator	13	9	1	0	0	23
Negotiator	12	9	2	0	0	23
Nurturer	14	8	0	0	1	23
Planner	12	7	3	0	0	22
Recruiter	8	10	3	2	0	23
Researcher	11	7	1	2	2	23
Resource Allocator	11	6	4	2	0	23
Teacher	9	9	2	1	2	23
Visionary	18	4	0	0	1	23
Total	259	182	44	11	8	504
Frequency missing = 2						

Table 5.21: MEANS Table for role perception

Role	n obs	mean	minimum	maximum	std dev
Planner	23	1.5909	1.0000	3.0000	0.7341
Motivator	23	1.4783	1.0000	3.0000	0.5931
Manager	23	1.7391	1.0000	4.0000	0.7518
Researcher	23	2.0000	1.0000	5.0000	1.3143
Advisor	23	1.6087	1.0000	5.0000	0.9409
Negotiator	23	1.5652	1.0000	3.0000	0.6624
Entrepreneur	23	2.4348	1.0000	4.0000	0.7878
Recruiter	23	1.9565	1.0000	4.0000	0.9283
Decision maker	23	1.2609	1.0000	2.0000	0.4490
Teacher	23	2.0435	1.0000	5.0000	1.2239
Delegator	23	1.6957	1.0000	3.0000	0.6350
Advocator	23	1.7826	1.0000	3.0000	0.6713
Leader	23	1.2174	1.0000	3.0000	0.5184
Evaluator	23	1.9545	1.0000	4.0000	0.7854
Innovator	23	1.4783	1.0000	3.0000	0.5931
Co-ordinator	23	1.6522	1.0000	4.0000	0.7751
Communicator	23	1.1739	1.0000	3.0000	0.4910
Nurturer	23	1.5217	1.0000	5.0000	0.8980
Visionary	23	1.3478	1.0000	5.0000	0.8847
Conflict resolver	23	1.4783	1.0000	3.0000	0.6653
Resource allocator	23	1.8696	1.0000	4.0000	1.0137
Mentor	23	1.7826	1.0000	5.0000	0.9023

Table 5.22: Table for ordered combined frequencies for role perception

Item	frequency	cumulative frequency
Decision maker	23	23
Communicator	22	45
Innovator	22	67
Leader	22	89
Motivator	22	111
Nurturer	22	133
Visionary	22	155
Advisor	21	176
Conflict resolver	21	197
Coordinator	21	218
Delegator	21	239
Manager	21	260
Mentor	21	281
Negotiator	21	302
Advocator	20	322
Planner	19	341
Evaluator	18	359
Recruiter	18	377
Researcher	18	395
Teacher	18	413
Resource allocator	17	430
Entrepreneur	11	441

The results indicate that participants generally attribute more importance to their role as ‘communicator’, ‘decision maker’, ‘leader’, ‘nurturer’ and ‘visionary’ than they do to the role of ‘entrepreneur’(with only 11 responses), ‘resource allocator’(17 responses), ‘teacher’, ‘researcher’, ‘recruiter’ and ‘evaluator’(18 responses). Participants seem to see their role primarily as decision-maker rather than as entrepreneur. A similar trend is apparent in the MEANS analysis of the participants’ responses (Table 5.21), where, among others, the roles of ‘communicator’, ‘leader’, ‘decision maker’, and ‘visionary’

are regarded as relevant to the HoD position. The different analyses in this section all indicate that participants in this study do not place the roles of 'researcher', 'teacher', and 'entrepreneur' high on their list of significant roles.

An interesting, though somewhat surprising finding, given today's focus on running departments as 'business entities', is that less than 50 per cent of the participants considered the role of 'entrepreneur' as important. This is consistent with Seagren et al's (1994) findings. The participants in that study did not perceive the role of entrepreneur as important. In the present study, a possible explanation for this finding is that it may be a reflection of 'resistance' to being identified with business or industry-related practices regardless of the strong managerial and accountability requirements of today's university and the competitive and entrepreneurial pressures placed upon departments (Middlehurst 1993).

5.2.4.8 Leadership style/Leadership traits applicable to participants

The area of women's leadership style is a topical one in research. A person's style is usually a very personal and distinctive feature of her/his personality and character. Different styles may work equally well in different situations and there is often a proper fit between the needs of an organisation and the required leadership style (Cronin 1993). To reiterate, it is commonly considered that women's leadership styles may be more suited to today's demands for 'softer, more feminine' qualities, such as their ability to nurture and develop individuals, a willingness to share information and power (Middlehurst 1997; Bennett 1997) and be persuasive, influential and charismatic (see 2.3.2). In the questionnaire, the participants were required to show the extent of their agreement regarding the personal applicability of certain leadership traits.

The results are displayed in Tables 5.23, 5.24 and 5.25. A mean value close to one implies a specific leadership style is regarded as applicable. A mean value close to five implies a specific leadership style is not regarded as applicable. Subjects seem to evaluate leadership traits more diffusely in this section and this is illustrated by the general frequency Table 5.23 and the chi-square test associated with the ordered and

ranked frequencies. The distribution of responses on which the ranking is based is statistically different (probability (chi-sq value = 102.49) <0.0001, which is highly significant), indicating that participants view some traits as significantly different from others. For instance, participants view traits such as 'collaborative', 'consultative', 'engaged', 'empathetic', 'assertive', 'democratic', and 'task-oriented' as significantly different from 'passive', 'autocratic', 'aloof', 'coercive', 'detached', 'centralised', 'authoritative' and 'other-oriented'. The MEANS Table (5.24) indicates that with the exception of two traits, 'other-oriented'(mean=2.6500) and decentralised'(mean=2.7273), seven of the listed traits have a mean value close to one, implying that those traits are applicable to the participants. Seven other traits have a mean value close to five, implying that those traits are not applicable to the participants.

Table 5.23 : Frequency table for leadership style traits

Item	Degree of applicability					
Frequency	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	Total
Authoritative	1	5	4	8	4	22
Coercive	0	2	3	5	11	21
Consultative	10	13	0	0	0	23
Collaborative	13	10	0	0	0	23
Democratic	8	10	4	0	1	23
Autocratic	0	1	2	9	11	23
Other-oriented	1	7	10	2	0	20
Task-oriented	7	11	3	1	0	22
Centralised	0	6	7	7	3	23
Decentralised	1	9	7	5	0	22
Empathetic	9	12	2	0	0	23
Detached	0	3	2	15	3	23
Assertive	6	12	4	0	0	22
Passive	0	1	2	10	10	23
Engaged	15	7	0	0	0	22
Aloof	0	1	3	9	9	22
Total	71	110	53	71	52	357
Frequency missing = 11						

Table 5.24: MEANS Table for leadership traits

Analysis variable : leadership traits					
Item	**n obs**	**mean**	**Minimum**	**maximum**	**std dev**
Authoritative	23	3.4091	1.0000	5.0000	1.1816
Coercive	23	4.1905	2.0000	5.0000	1.0305
Consultative	23	1.5652	1.0000	2.0000	0.5069
Collaborative	23	1.4348	1.0000	2.0000	0.5069
Democratic	23	1.9565	1.0000	5.0000	0.9760
Autocratic	23	4.3043	2.0000	5.0000	0.8221
Other-oriented	23	2.6500	1.0000	4.0000	0.7452
Task-oriented	23	1.9091	1.0000	4.0000	0.8112
Centralised	23	3.3043	2.0000	5.0000	1.0196
Decentralised	23	2.7273	1.0000	4.0000	0.8827
Empathetic	23	1.6957	1.0000	3.0000	0.6350
Detached	23	3.7826	2.0000	5.0000	0.8505
Assertive	23	1.9091	1.0000	3.0000	0.6838
Passive	23	4.2609	2.0000	5.0000	0.8100
Engaged	23	1.3182	1.0000	2.0000	0.4767
Aloof	23	4.1818	2.0000	5.0000	0.8528

Table 5.25: Table for ordered combined frequencies for leadership traits

Item	Frequency	Cumulative frequency
Collaborative	23	23
Consultative	23	46
Engaged	22	68
Empathetic	21	89
Assertive	18	107
Democratic	18	125
Task-oriented	18	143
Decentralised	10	153
Other-oriented	8	161
Authoritative	6	167
Centralised	6	173
Detached	3	176
Coercive	2	178
Aloof	1	179
Autocratic	1	180
Passive	1	181

It would appear then, that participants clearly do not associate their leadership style with negatively perceived traits such as 'aloof', 'passive', 'detached' and 'autocratic'. However, they do associate their style with traits traditionally perceived as male-oriented, such as ' assertive', and 'task-oriented' and only one participant associates her style with the 'authoritative' male-oriented leadership trait. Consistent with findings from the literature (see 2.3.2; 2.3.3; 2.3.3.1), participants in this study view their leadership style, on the whole, as being participative, collaborative, empathetic and democratic. Jones' study (1997) (see 2.3.3), found that the leadership style of her respondents was characterised by participative management, empowerment, team building, vision creation

and hands-on-supervision. Daft (2005:438) made similar observations about women's style of leadership. His findings show that in general women tend to be more concerned with relationship building, inclusiveness, participation and caring and are more willing to share power and information, to encourage employee development and to strive to enhance others' feelings of self-worth. Another study which confirms findings from the present study is that of Sherman (2000) whose study of the leadership experiences of women administrators in rural school settings found that the women she interviewed described their leadership style in terms that emphasised traits traditionally associated with females. They used adjectives such as maternal, mothering, comforting, compassionate and empathetic. In addition they perceived their leadership style as nurturing, co-operating and making connections as well as focussing on relationships (2000:138). Bennett (1997) and Ramsay (2000) both had similar findings regarding women's leadership which they described as being more democratic and participative than males. Ramsay adds that in universities women leaders have been found to be consultative, conciliatory, task-oriented, co-operative, team-oriented, as well as collaborative and so on.

5.2.4.9 Academic leadership demands experienced by participants

Universities today are faced with an ever increasing demand for transformation and institutional change including the introduction of new programmes, adoption of business-oriented management approaches, provision of leadership and direction in research and teaching, liaising with external agencies and so on. All these demands call for intellectual, academic and managerial leadership on the part of the HoD. In times of change, it is usually expected of those in senior positions to provide the necessary leadership and direction in order to achieve departmental and institutional goals (Middlehurst 1993). For that to be realised, the academic leader must have "appropriate academic credentials and particular kinds of intellectual training" as well as the ability to operate in an environment which calls for new skills of the kind needed in other organisations which differ from the university (Ramsden 1998).

In the questionnaire, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed that they experienced certain demands in the exercise of their departmental academic leadership. The results are displayed in Tables 5.26, 5.27, 5.28. In Table 5.27, a mean value close to one implies a specific leadership style is regarded as applicable whereas a mean value close to five implies a specific leadership style is not regarded as applicable.

The distribution of responses in Table 5.26 suggests that participants experience many of the listed items as demands in their job. The MEANS Table also confirms this observation, where all the demands have a mean value close to one. Topping the list of qualities participants experience as demanding is 'facilitating and encouraging the work of the individual and of the group (item 46.9, mean=1.2273) and at the bottom of the list is ' being a servant of the group who embraces the group's values and goals'(item 46.11, mean=2.4091).

Table 5.26: Frequency Table for academic leadership demands

Academic leadership demands						
Item	**Extent of agreement**					
Frequency	**strongly agree**	**agree**	**undecided**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**	**Total**
Provide intellectual direction	8	12	1	1	0	22
Encourage research	15	6	1	0	0	22
Collective purpose/interest	13	7	2	0	0	22
Disciplinary/teaching direction	7	9	6	0	0	22
Direction: new programmes	6	11	5	0	0	22
Stimulate group/individual effort	9	12	1	0	0	22
Policy implementation	6	11	4	1	0	22
Communication channel	13	8	0	1	0	22
Facilitate individual/group work	17	5	0	0	0	22
Promote group values	6	6	5	5	0	22
Inspirational leader	15	6	1	0	0	22
Attract resources	11	9	2	0	0	22
Dispute resolution	9	11	1	1	0	22
Responsible official	10	7	2	2	1	22
Total	145	120	31	11	1	308
Frequency missing = 14						

Table 5.27: MEANS Table for academic leadership demands

Analysis variable : academic leadership demands					
Item	**n obs**	**mean**	**Minimum**	**maximum**	**std dev**
Provide intellectual direction	23	1.7727	1.0000	4.0000	0.7516
Encourage research	23	1.3636	1.0000	3.0000	0.5811
Collective purpose/interest	23	1.5000	1.0000	3.0000	0.6726
Disciplinary/teaching direction	23	1.9545	1.0000	3.0000	0.7854
Direction: new programmes	23	1.9545	1.0000	3.0000	0.7222
Stimulate group/individual effort	23	1.6364	1.0000	3.0000	0.5811
Policy implementation	23	2.0000	1.0000	4.0000	0.8165
Communication channel	23	1.5000	1.0000	4.0000	0.7400
Facilitate individual/group work	23	1.2273	1.0000	2.0000	0.4289
Promote group values	23	2.4091	1.0000	4.0000	1.1406
Inspirational leader	23	1.3636	1.0000	3.0000	0.5811
Attract resources	23	1.5909	1.0000	3.0000	0.6661
Dispute resolution	23	1.7273	1.0000	4.0000	0.7673
Responsible official	23	1.9545	1.0000	5.0000	1.1742

Table 5.28: Table for ordered combined frequencies for academic leadership demands

Academic leadership demands	frequency	Cumulative frequency
Facilitate individual/group work	22	22
Communication channel	21	43
Encourage research	21	64
Inspirational leader	21	85
Stimulate group/individual effort	21	106
Attract resources	20	126
Collective purpose/interest	20	146
Dispute resolution	20	166
Provide intellectual direction	20	186
Direction: new programmes	17	203
Policy implementation	17	220
Responsible official	17	237
Disciplinary/teaching direction	16	253
Promote group values	12	265

The results indicated in Tables 5.26, 5.27 and 5.28 seem to suggest that many demands are placed upon the HoD in her task. The most difficult one is striking a balance between facilitating the work of the individual and that of the group. This seems to imply that it is not an easy task to ensure that both individual and group needs are equally satisfied. However, 'being a servant of the group who embraces the group's values and goals'(item 46.10), seems to be the least demanding aspect of the HoD's academic leadership role. This appears to indicate that the HoDs who participated in this study see their role in terms of 'servant leader'. This observation parallels that of Brown's and Rutherford's (1998) finding cited by Briggs (2005:29) whereby middle managers involved in the study saw the role of the school HoD as including 'servant leader'. A possible explanation for this may be that women are naturally predisposed to being 'other-oriented' because they are nurturing and sensitive to the needs of others. They also have the ability to redefine organisational values and beliefs and be connected to others whilst also being committed to team-building (cf 2.3.3).

Table 5.29: Table for summary results of cross-tabulations between the variables of age, HoD experience and teaching experience

Summary results of cross tabulations between the variables of age, HoD experience, teaching experience at current institution and the various managerial issues regarding woman in HoD positions. The issues refer to sections D – L of the questionnaire.
Aim: to establish significance/non significance of dependencies between the various HoD issues (columns), and biographical variables (rows).
The value of the respective chi-square statistics and probabilities associated with the chi-square values, are presented in the body of the table.

Managerial issues, sections:	**Biographical variables:**					
	age		**years experience HoD**		**years teaching experience**	
	chi-sq	**prob(chisq)**	**chi-sq**	**prob(chisq)**	**chi-sq**	**prob(chisq)**
D:	4.53	1.00 (ns)	2.71	1.00 (ns)	1.83	1.00 (ns)
E:	10.71	0.99 (ns)	5.11	1.00 (ns)	8.08	1.00 (ns)
F:	7.33	0.99 (ns)	7.16	0.997 (ns)	3.28	1.00 (ns)
G:	3.55	0.998 (ns)	3.51	0.998 (ns)	4.76	0.99 (ns)
H:	1.48	1.00 (ns)	3.53	1.00 (ns)	2.32	1.00 (ns)
I:	7.16	0.99 (ns)	4.24	1.00 (ns)	4.70	1.00 (ns)
J:	3.61	1.00 (ns)	3.14	1.00 (ns)	2.27	1.00 (ns)
K:	9.25	0.86 (ns)	8.08	0.92 (ns)	8.78	0.89 (ns)
L:	1.31	1.00 (ns)	1.49	1.00 (ns)	1.50	1.00 (ns)

ns: not significant

The summary results in Table 5.29, indicate that no statistically significant relationship between any of the biographical variables and the various managerial issues could be established. This implies that no significant dependencies could be established between the variables under investigation. This is probably attributable to the fact that only a small dataset was analysed. As the results indicate, neither age nor experience as HoD, or years experience at the current institution contributed to participants' perceptions on the various managerial issues.

5.3 PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

5.3.1 Introduction

In the previous section (5.2), results of the quantitative survey involving 23 women HoDs were presented and discussed. This section presents and discusses combined qualitative data from the survey and video conference focus group interviews. With the exception of one participant, who was available for both survey and interview, there were two separate groups of HoDs. One group completed a sixteen page questionnaire and the other participated in the focus group interviews. In this section, qualitative data from parallel topics and themes in the questionnaire and interviews is integrated and discussed together, while information from themes emerging from the interviews alone is discussed separately.

In the first part of the presentation, qualitative information relating to background characteristics of the thirty two women (23 from the survey and 9 from the interviews) is tabled and outlined. This includes name of department, previous positions held prior to present position, total number of years experience in previous and current position. In the second part of the presentation, significant themes which emerge from the interviews and the survey are tabled and outlined. This is followed in the third part, by a detailed description of significant themes which emerged from the interviews only. The themes are organised according to topics in the interview guide, and presented and described by means of narrative descriptive material or summary points where applicable.

Representative quotes are selected for each theme followed by a discussion of the significance of each theme. The fourth part consists of additional issues or themes related to interview topics and arising out of participant interaction and facilitator probing.

5.3.2 Characteristics related to job experience

This section presents the responses of survey and interview participants relating to questions of employment and experience at the time of the survey and interviews. These include:

- the department in which the participant is currently employed
- previous positions of responsibility
- activities in which the participant is involved
- the total number of years in previous and current position/s.

The survey participants were asked to indicate positions of responsibility held prior to the current one and then to indicate the number of years in each previous position. The interview participants had to talk about previous positions of responsibility held and the number of years as head of the current department. Names of interview participants have been inserted, to distinguish them from the survey participants.

TABLE 5.30: Experience of HoD-past and present

Current department	Previous positions and current activities	Years experience
Legal History, comparative law and legal philosophy	Senior lecturer faculty of law; chairperson board of governors (prep school); HR officer on board of governors …… student support, education innovation…	19
Arts languages and human movement studies	Past chair of school of teacher training; HoD English – teachers college;	12
Early childhood education	HoD in college of education	6
Social work and Criminology	Senior liaison community officer and population development; senior community worker SA association for health promotion; …….. postgraduate supervision; faculty teaching innovation; strategic planning faculty	2
Women's and gender studies	Deputy chair of Psychology department; voluntary work, supervision	1
Computer Science	Acting HoD; vice chair; supervision of masters and honours degrees; postgraduate representative of faculty at other faculty boards	11
Public affairs	Acting Hod Mercantile law; academic union president	1
Academic reading and development	Judge; trainer at SLP; lecturer	1
Statistics	Deputy chair; senior lecturer; associate professor; faculty research committee member	18
Information systems	Acting dean; acting campus director; HoD; lecturer in charge –cross campus	22
Business management	Researcher; economist(govt);assistant accountant; high school teacher	14
Public law	Deputy dean; council member; director research unit	
Astronomy	HoD dept of astronomy(Mexico); Royal Dutch Academy of Science; research fellow –Netherlands; post doctoral research fellow- Switzerland	19
Archaeology	Teacher; assistant professor; running laboratory	14
Molecular and cell biology	Acting HoD; chair of university's conference travel committee; on board of trustees of Biopad…….editorial work on journals & reviewing grant proposals	6
School of psychology and human development	Course leader; dept tutor; research seminar organiser; chair of exam board	17
London centre for leadership in learning, institute of education	Dept head large primary school; LA advisers; policy adviser to dept of Education; head of primary initial teachers education; dean of Education and Psychology……class teacher; senior teacher to deputy head; (never held post below HOD in university setting)	20
Graduate school of Engineering and Physical Sciences	Dean; director of research	9
Graduate dean faculty of Engineering	Programme director; pastoral care; programme admin; programme development	7
Physiotherapy	Programme leader	9

Graduate school of Education	Director of research; PhD supervision	3
Principal of Engineering faculty*	Assistant director – Rolls Royce university of technology; head of materials; director of advanced engineering; managing director of an operating division of Rolls Royce Aero Engine and marine power group ; chief executive of the Institute of Physics	10+
School of early childhood and primary education	Head of a large initial teacher education course…… PhD supervision; admin; writing and publications	10
Physiotherapy	Senior lecturer, then department chair …**JEN**	2
School of Natural Sciences	Chaired department … **BETSY**	4
Human Biology	In charge of biology lab.; held several senior positions within the department executive and faculty executive; chaired various committees (animal health committee)…**…SALLY**	4
Statistics	Head of Maths Engineering ; head of Statistics; acting head of dept of applied Maths; chairperson of the South African Statistics Association… **TANYA**	10+/(4)
Faculty of Social Science and Law*	Dean three yrs (faculty of Social Science and Law……..**BROOKE**	3
Accounting department	Lecturer in charge of accounting department at satellite campus ; HoD accounting dept at the combined Rhodes satellite Campus and Fort Hare campus at Alice; HoD at border technikon …**LEE**	6/(5)
Principal of Engineering faculty*	Currently principal of faculty with ten engineering departments – Ten HoD's…**NIKKI**	2/(2)
Informatics	Director of school of Pharmacy ; dept chair of Pharmacy Practice ; HoD Dept of Informatics; chair of School of Art	18/(6)
Physiotherapy unit	Previously head of a teaching programme commissioned by the department of health(BSc. accelerated 2 year programme); worked with registration body and other professional bodies; responsible for research, employing people and managing people.	--------

* Nikki took part in both survey and interview and is currently principal of Engineering faculty with several years experience in Industry. She had "quite a number of senior management positions before this one".

* Brooke was Dean of faculty and about to retire at the time of the interview.

** Cheryl has extensive experience in positions of responsibility but unfortunately some of the information was lost due to video recording problems during the opening part of the interview (she was interviewed alone as she could not be

accommodated in previous focus groups). Subsequent follow-ups to obtain the missing information were not successful.

As Table 5.30 indicates, just over 50 per cent of the participants in the study are heads of traditionally male dominated departments such as science, engineering and law. Taken together, this seems a reasonably impressive number. But viewed as individual cases, these women represent only a minority of female HoDs available at each institution involved in the study. At some universities, particularly in the UK, there were no women HoDs at all.

Whereas all survey participants indicated only number of years in previous positions, some interview participants indicated both number of years in previous positions and number of years as HoD. In the Table this is indicated as 6/5 for example. As already discussed in 5.2 (presentation of quantitative findings), the majority of participants had between 1-6 years experience as HoD which is the same as the interview participants. The data also indicates that many of the women have extensive prior experience in positions of responsibility as well as in their current HoD position. They are also involved in several activities at their institutions. One woman, Nikki, has vast experience in industry as well. She is one of two women in the sample who held a rank above that of HoD at the time of the study. This only came to light during the interview. However, because of the paucity of female HoDs at the selected institutions, they were sanctioned to participate and share their extensive managerial experience.

5.3.3 Presentation of parallel themes from the survey and interviews

5.3.3.1 Motivation and career direction

There are as many motivations for becoming a HoD as there are HoDs. When the participants in this study were asked to share what had motivated them to accept or apply for the position of HoD, several reasons emerged. Foremost was the need to make a contribution and difference, to be involved in a management role which would enable the understanding of university systems and policies as well as affording improvement of

research. Here are some selected excerpts of the motivating factors expressed by the participants: ‘to understand systems of varsity…’ ‘wanted a more strategic and developmental role …’ ‘the opportunity to work with very bright people and to make a difference’.

Some participants were motivated by the simple enjoyment of management and a willingness to contribute to the development of the department:

> ‘interest in the post and enjoyment of leadership and management…’ ‘opportunity to acquire administration and management skills…’ ‘opportunity to build up new department and increase profile of faculty…’ ‘it was a newly established department; wanted to lay solid foundation…’
> ‘knowing I could make positive change to a struggling department vis-à-vis research and collegiality…’

While some felt it was their turn to ‘take the reins,’ others fell into the position by default as no one else was willing to take the job. Others were encouraged by colleagues or were simply elected by staff. These are selections from their comments: ‘no one else would do it…’ ‘I thought it was my turn…’ ‘not a deliberate position – default position…’ ‘encouraged by colleagues…’

Asked to share what factors may have influenced their career to take its present course, the interview participants listed these main factors:

> ‘the direction, I think it’s just the normal direction in an academic career which got me this position…’ ‘my career was influenced by the departmental needs at the time…’ ‘I thought I wanted to be a scientist as a child but I was always more interested in how things work than, if you like why things happen…’ ‘I was always interested in biology and science and investigation and finding out and then I had an overriding passion for education and teaching.’

It is apparent from the accounts shared by the participants regarding their motivation and what influenced their career direction that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors are at play. While for some, the motivation comes from a need to develop themselves as leaders and managers in order to contribute to the growth of their department, for others it results from an external need. Whereas they would not, it seems, deliberately seek out the position, they eventually take it for the sake of the department. Again career directions are either influenced by a passion and interest in the field or by the needs of the department.

5.3.3.2 Job challenges

Challenges are encountered in any job situation. The position of HoD is no exception. Consequently the participants were asked to share those aspects of their job as HoD, which they found most challenging. One of the most frequently mentioned challenges by South African participants was “dealing with merger problems.” However, both South African and UK participants found “restructuring and transformation of universities and of departments and programmes” a trial. Some of the consequent problems of merging, according to participants, include “having to deal with staff who are resentful over shrinking departmental budgets” and those who “won’t let go of dying programmes”. In addition, according to a South African participant, merger and incorporation presents challenges of “dealing with different cultures”, and said one UK participant, “being integrated into the university’s ethos and culture – where many of the staff are from a college which has been incorporated into the university”.

The budget is a continuous challenge. HoDs have to operate with shrinking budgets and resources and are expected to ‘do more with less’. This also results in feelings of resentment among staff forced to share scant resources. It leads to frustration and aggression as well as confrontation and resistance—all of which are a test for the HoD. ‘Maintaining research outputs’ was identified as yet another challenge for the HoD. Not only does the HoD have to ensure that staff engage in teaching, but she has to encourage them to engage in top-level research as well in order to meet the demands for education and research assessment. In the UK the research assessment exercise (RAE) is a ongoing

issue for the HoD. Time management is yet another. The HoD has to balance many demands including work, family, university and programme requirements. She is also faced with identifying and developing talented staff; designing and developing postgraduate programmes; and turning an emerging programme around.

In addition to all these tasks the HoD is a fulltime academic/professor.

5.3.3.3 Career advancement and obstacles

(a) Plans and reasons to advance further in career

A commonly held assumption is that women (especially married) often put their careers on hold to allow their partners or husbands to develop theirs. The woman plays a supportive role, often subordinating her own career to that of her spouse or sometimes even sacrificing it for the sake of her husband. However, the experiences shared by the women in the present study do not list 'prioritising the husband's career as an obstacle'. Rather, it is the dual role of career and family (with some putting family first) which constitutes an obstacle to career development.

The participants were asked if they had any plans to advance further and where they would like their careers to be in the next five years. Three categories of comments were distinguishable. The majority of comments were positive with regard to desire to move up the academic ladder or move into a senior management position. The following are representative selections: 'would like to advance from HoD to dean…' 'looking for role to become vice-chancellor…' 'would like to do PhD'.

An almost equal number of comments were negative or uncertain with regards to desire for career advancement: 'no aspiration to go into management- would like to make a difference in structures other than management…' 'not interested in moving up – would like to work with students which is fulfilling…' 'not sure – currently re-evaluating…'

The last group of commentators included the 'age clock' as an obstacle. Those who responded this way said they were too old for advancement or could not advance themselves even if they wanted to, because of retirement (cf 3.3.3.1(v)): 'well, I think since you know how old I am, all I can say is there's not much time to further my career – I'm tired' 'retiring at end of year…' [2006] 'that's a problem for me because I'm quite old now – I'm nearing the end of my career and although I would like advancement it's very unlikely that a job will come up in time for me to apply'.

What was interesting about these comments were the reasons given. Whereas the women who aspired to a higher academic rank or a senior management position expressed a desire to be more involved in research, publishing and supervision of postgraduate students, and in 'making a difference at the whole organisational level', the women who were not interested in moving up felt that being 'too management-oriented' would hamper their enjoyment of working with students. It appears, therefore, that while on the one hand, more involvement in management is perceived by some as an opportunity to improve their research careers, on the other hand, it is perceived by others as a barrier to teaching and making a difference at that level.

(b) Obstacles to promotion, promotion opportunities and strategies for dealing with obstacles

Participants were asked to describe obstacles to their promotion, the number of promotion opportunities they had, and the strategies they used to overcome the obstacles. A variety of interesting responses emerged from the survey and interviews. What follows is a presentation of their responses to each of the above sections with some representative comments.

Unlike Gupton's and Slick's (1996) study, where the women administrators who were interviewed felt that their career was hampered by the 'lack of degree'… none of the women HoDs in the present study mentioned 'lack of necessary degrees and credentials' as an obstacle to their career advancement. Granted, all but seven (21.8 per-cent) of the thirty two participants in this study held a doctorate and more than 50 per cent were in the

professoriate rank. Although it is acknowledged in the literature that the doctoral degree is important for advancement in higher education administration (cf 3.3.3.1(iv)), yet far fewer numbers of women administrators hold it compared with male administrators. The number of women in this study who have a doctorate may indicate a gradual improvement for women in this area.

However, as the findings in Gupton's and Slick's study suggest, " Just having the degrees and the credentials [don't] fulfil all of the preparation criteria" (1996:2). Therefore despite having all the right credentials and degrees, the women in the present study reported experiencing barriers in other areas relating to institutional, personal, area of interest/career choice, research career, family, gender, and management.

Institutional obstacles were found mainly in human resource management issues such as advertising procedures and practices. For instance, one participant commented that the length of time it takes for a deanship post to be advertised and the fact that this post is widely advertised limits one's chances of promotion. Sometimes a current dean's post may be extended - thus further increasing the wait time for promotion for a HoD who wishes to move up the ladder. As Carol commented:

> You have to wait for a post to be advertised to move on. If it's a position higher than HoD to Dean – they sometimes just advertise it internally so that it's open to HoD's to apply for the position – sometimes they advertise it widely – for any outside people as well – so you have to wait for a post to be advertised to move on.

Other institutional obstacles, as Lee found out, were attributed to an employment equity policy (South Africa):

> I think the nature of the beast as it is at the moment is the issue of equity. So if I wanted to go beyond where I am now, I would have problems being white. Fortunately for me I … I don't have any ...I do not want to go beyond the level I am as far as management is concerned – I am contemplating to get out of

> management in order to pursue what I've just mentioned (PhD). If I were to want to continue, the fact that I'm white would in fact be an impediment to senior management.

At least two women cited lack of women's networks and mentoring systems (cf *3.3.3.1* (vii)) as an obstacle for them. As various studies have emphasised, networks are an important platform for women in management to share information, and to learn about job opportunities and such like. Women who are already in positions of power and those aspiring to such positions need to network (King 1997:92). Another woman's advancement was hampered by lack of opportunities due to slow turnover of staff and lack of financial resources at her institution. Yet another had to abandon her studies (which would have increased her chances for promotion) as a result of shortage of staff and large student numbers.

Of the personal obstacles mentioned, one related to lack of experience. To move up from HoD to dean, one requires experience first and often this is an impediment. So is lack of a good research profile, as one woman stated. Another felt that illness and lack of confidence were her obstacles. Another felt her choice to focus more on teaching was her obstacle.

Consistent with findings from similar studies such as Gupton's and Slick's (1996) study, one participant felt strongly that her choice of area of study for her PhD presented an obstacle to her advancement. Women are still not encouraged to pursue traditionally male occupied careers. This particular woman's area of interest (Computer Science) was criticised and she felt that women were unwelcome in this male dominated field:

> Originally the fact was that I did not have a PhD. After doing the PhD, my area of interest was criticised. The computer science environment is very male dominated – women sometimes feel unwelcome.

Yet another obstacle listed was starting late in academia or research: 'started late in academia after raising a family…' 'lack of huge research profile as a result of starting

research late in career…' 'second career – did not become psychologist until early 40's…' 'PhD achieved in late 40s – no research focus in health sector.'

The next category includes family related obstacles such as balancing career and family. Participants' comments included the following: 'started late in academia after having a family…' 'my family comes first; my children are more important than career development…' 'dual role – career and family'.

Not only did some of the women experience family related obstacles, others experienced gender related ones. Some were in the form of blatant bullying behaviour by a senior manager. Others were more subtle such as what one woman said she experienced at undergraduate level and in various other roles: 'expectations of male tutors at undergrad. level: expected to be less successful than male classmates – occasional attempts to bully by male colleagues in various different roles'.

Although this might be interpreted as a form of sexual harassment, for these women such behaviour constituted obstacles to their advancement in the same way as work related responsibilities were cited as impediments by others. In addition, lack of support from the dean was listed as a barrier to advancement. Since the dean is part of academic management, this obstacle falls into management related obstacles.

The participants were further asked to indicate if they had had any opportunities for promotion and if so, how many. This is what emerged. The number of promotion opportunities each participant had, ranged from 0 to 3, with the majority reporting at least one opportunity for promotion. What is interesting with this result is that two women who reported having "no reason not to advance" in the words of one of them, had the most number of opportunities for promotion (2 and 3 respectively), but for whatever reason, decided not to utilise the opportunities. Of the women who stated that they had zero opportunities for promotion, one said she did not want any promotion anyway. However, she suggested that a "strong publication record" would be one way of overcoming obstacles to advancement.

In contrast, three other women who reported zero opportunities for promotion would have liked to advance but could not. Their reasons ranged from lack of support from the dean and having too many responsibilities, to not having gained enough experience on the job.

As to how the participants dealt with the obstacles they encountered, many responded in a manner consistent with the findings in (Gupton & Slick 1996:29). An overwhelming number of the women emphasised the need for perseverance, determination and persistence in overcoming obstacles. The following are excerpts:

> ‘perseverance and finding colleagues in other disciplines who were prepared to collaborate with me in the field of research I am interested in, namely, Computer Science Education…’ ‘persistence, perseverance, though the pace is slow…’ ‘determination and a willingness to address bullying behaviour from a male senior manager when I was just working for a national body…’ ‘through keeping going…’ ‘persistence and support from my husband, other colleagues and mentors…’ ‘I had determination.’

Below are examples of other strategies the women used to overcome their obstacles. These include improving qualifications and publications, confronting the obstacle and relying on the support and help of others:

> ‘worked very hard and still do – completed masters and am enrolled for PhD…’ ‘a strong publication record…’ ‘admitting that there are obstacles and addressing them through conferencing with the affected people…’ ‘understood them [the obstacles] and worked around them…’ ‘full time tutors to assist with administration of classes…’ ‘refocusing energy…’
> ‘support from my husband…’

5.3.4 Presentation and discussion of significant themes from interview participants

A discussion of in-depth information shared by nine academic women HoDs during video conference focus group sessions now follows. Where verbatim comments are quoted, participants' pseudo-names are used. Where comments are summarised, the names of the participants are omitted.

5.3.4.1 Success factors, coping with stress and on being a female HoD

In this section participants' views regarding critical success factors in their position as HoD are reported. The requisite skills and abilities necessary for the job are also outlined. As stress is an inevitable part of any demanding job, participants were also asked to share their lived experiences regarding stress management as female HoDs.

(a) Success factors

Success in the job of HoD, according to the participants in this study, seems to hinge on personal, professional and academic leadership skills. Subject knowledge, boldness, fearlessness and assertiveness coupled with strong interpersonal skills (especially ability to communicate up and down) are crucial to success.

As Tanya pointed out: 'Well I think you have to have a very broad knowledge base of your subject and associated subjects.' Lee concurred: 'What I think first of all is, one needs to be skilled in the profession that you are a member of . So you need to have a skill in the mainline subjects…'

Different skills and abilities are important for success in the job. Sally remarked that 'you need to know a lot about people…I had to know about buildings, labour laws, people skills and so forth.'

Nikki picked up on the point of people skills and said: 'I spend a lot of my day on people issues. High on my list of success factors are negotiation skills — you have to have

marketing skills but also strong negotiation skills, be patient and also assertive and persistent…have to show people you will win, and that's the way forward.

Understanding the budget is critical, as Sally pointed out: 'I find finances unbelievably boring. HoDs are not being encouraged enough to know what their finances are and even how to do it, but it's absolutely critical…'

The ability to listen, to network and negotiate and to be pro-active and innovative are invaluable to the job. According to Cheryl:

> if you're going to be successful in the job you have to actually balance everything – you have to be innovative; you actually should not be a 'shrinking violet'. It's not good hiding in the corner. I think women have a tendency to be quiet, reserved and shy. I think you have to be quite careful not to overdo it because that's counterproductive.

Betsy adds that one needs to have: 'interpersonal communication skills and the ability to be consistent with a large number of people, students and so on and also be able to prioritise as the buck stops at your desk'.

Carol believes in the ability to multitask:

> …need to be very organised and be able to multitask because you have a lot of different things on your table all day- can't book out the whole day for one thing only. The people skills, interpersonal skills – very, very important management skills that you need to apply to be able to do the job…and its long hours.

For Brooke the 'first skill is being able to work in all directions with superiors and those below you'. She continues:

> be patient and diplomatic (it took me a while to learn how to change things overnight)… do a lot of campaigning and consulting with stakeholders… be good at

> listening -active listening- so that you can hear the messages which are buried beneath what people say overtly… have a good sense of humour and be good at putting people at their ease and making them feel they can trust your, and can relax in your company… obviously have certain amount of authority because you have to chair committees have some skill in managing a budget – deans have to learn those skills - I didn't have experience in that before... be able to make tough decisions – which is difficult for all of us…

(b) Coping with stress

Stress is an inevitable part of a demanding position, and the participants in this study all admitted to having their fair share of it. There is no panacea for stress as the accounts of the women involved in this study reflect. All of them rely on more than one mechanism. As Brooke advises, 'You have to draw on a lot of resources to cope.'

From the lived experiences of the women such resources include, among others, relaxing and unwinding in various ways; relying on supportive spouses, partners, friends or colleagues who help by listening sympathetically or by allowing ideas to be bounced off them or by also contributing ideas; taking time off on weekends to relax and not do any work or do something indulgent like shopping or relaxing with music, exercising, prioritising and delegating, stepping back from work and focusing on self and other aspects of one's life and interests. A few typical comments on this theme include the following:

> I play golf and it's a big de-stressing element and then I love my home pursuits. I love gardening. I want to retire to a nursery at some stage. When I retire I want to run a nursery – my own nursery. And I enjoy that…I enjoy my animals; I enjoy my life; I have my family life and I think that's a big de-stressing factor that I do have, and that's how I cope with stress. (Lee)

I have a very good friend…a professor in business and I sometimes go over to see[him] for a cup of coffee and a whinge about the world. He's not in my faculty - he doesn't

know some of the players, so if I want to stick pins into little white models…I go…(laughs)… doesn't know who they are, but he's able to help. I also have a husband who puts up with being somebody both for bouncing ideas off, also somebody for telling me to stop thinking about it. (Nikki)

I find that a three or four week holiday per year really helps a lot. Getting away from everything with your family, then you can get back and you've got energy again to do the job. That is the way that I de-stress. (Carol)

For me a very important coping mechanism was to give attention to other aspects of my life and to refuse to be defined only by the job. I had outside interests, I'm involved in service organisations, involved in public speaking, involved with working wit youth groups. (Betsy)

My partner is fantastic. He used to pick me up and pour me a drink at the end of the day and make me a cup of tea and calm me down sometimes. (Brooke)

I've taken to learning languages. They cause you to really focus your mind on something else, quite take your brainpower from what you're doing and that's very useful for me. (Sally)

I take time to actually sort of step back from some things. I do practical things like write down things I need to do and I prioritise. I also delegate. (Cheryl)

It's important to have a lot of 'me time'…for me, 'me time' is very important.(Jen)

Brooke and Lee offer some advice to aspiring HoDs, 'Identify people who are sympathetic that you can talk to, who can give you advice,' and 'Get on top of it! Do it and get it done!'

(c) On being a female HoD

Having shared what they regarded as success factors, the participants went on to share their experiences of being a female HoD, whether they thought it was an advantage or not; whether they had to make any changes in their personal, professional and career life to accommodate their new responsibilities; and whether they had experienced any prejudice or negative attitudes toward them as female HoDs – or if they had been affected by race, gender or sexism in their work.

There was a fairly even distribution of comments which pointed to the presence of advantages and disadvantages in being a female HoD. Cheryl put it rather amusingly, "I quite like to be a woman. I have not actually found that to be a problem". Clearly she thinks it is an advantage to be a woman. One of these advantages is that women are more empathetic than men in that they are willing to listen to staff problems including personal ones. They are also better at handling junior staff and seem to 'know how to get on with other women'.

Sally believes that:

> …one of the advantages of being HoD is that by virtue of one's position – one is listened to. I'm not saying that you…you don't have to fight from the ground up…and you have forums where people will listen to you instantly --- so one is able to move things faster than one could have if one was acting HOD or even not head – and what has resulted from that is that one finds that one can take a leadership position and one can take a stand.

For Lee it is an advantage to be a female Hod for two reasons:

> I would say that in my profession leading up to this, it has been an advantage to be a woman …uhm…it's almost in a curious way that you're looked upon… when you come into a board meeting or when you have to address board members and so on, you find that as a woman you are looked upon with curiosity – in fact

> you're given more attention than the men would have been given – I don't find that an impediment, on the contrary. In the position that I'm in now, the university strongly supports the gender side of equity, and from that point of view I'm in a favourable position being of a female gender, so I do not have…uhm… I do not find that …uhm… being a female has in any way negatively affected me – it's been an advantage.

One of the disadvantages is not being taken seriously as a woman so that you have to constantly prove that you can do the job. Worse still is having men who have trouble taking authority from a woman and thus undermine her authority at every turn.

Carol's comment summarises the women's thoughts on this issue:

> The disadvantage - I feel that the men do not always take me seriously. Especially when I'm sitting in a meeting with 30 male HOD's. If I make a suggestion – I have to be sort of very assertive—have to learn to be that way – not my personality - otherwise I get ignored (that's not part of my personality – I had to learn to be assertive to make myself clear to them and the ideas that I have to bring that to their attention – uhm- and if you're sort of -in the department too strict to especially the men , they think that – sorry to use the word – you are a bitch – but if a man talks to you very strictly about your work , about what you've not done, I think some might accept is that's… it's my manager, he may talk to me like that. So that's one of the disadvantages… you have to be very careful about how you handle difficult situations so they don't think you're picking on them.

As far as experiencing negative attitudes towards them as a woman or being affected by racism, gender or sexism all, but one of the women interviewed, felt they were discriminated against. Brooke felt that some of the men who could not take authority from a woman somehow resented her. The rest of the women did not think there were any gender differences and that whatever disadvantages existed, were not related to gender but were of a general nature. Nikki felt that any negative attitude in her case, was probably a result of resentment about the new faculty structure that had been introduced

at the university and of which she was head. So she would be resented not as a woman but as a figure representing the unfavourable structure.

Lee did not experience any negative attitudes towards her as a woman in the professional and academic capacity but possibly in her private life. As a white person she felt she was privileged not to be affected by racial discrimination. But that as a parent, she thought she may be experiencing discrimination and being affected by it through her children's experience of affirmative action which has forced three of her four children to leave the country to work elsewhere.

In Tanya's days, it was rare to have a woman HoD. She grew up around boys and believes her outlook on gender discrimination may have been influenced by that and the fact that she pursued science subjects at university and had an easy relationship with the boys. As she put it, "I became one of them… I'm one of the guys…I don't see any negative attitude."

5.3.4.2 Leadership and management

(a) Academic leader or line manager?

On whether they considered themselves academic leader or line manager, the women were clear that they are primarily academic leaders. They acknowledged that as a HoD one needs both academic leadership and line management skills to function effectively in the job. This is confirmed by Smith's (1996) finding reported in Smith 2002:296. It was found that in statutory universities in the UK, the two elements (leader and line manager) were felt to be of approximately equal importance. Ramsden (1998:108) also confirms this, when he concurs with Kotter's belief that "management and leadership – are complementary and equally necessary to a work unit or organisation's success", therefore as Ramsden contends, "substituting leadership for management is not a sensible solution; both systems are needed" (1998:109).

(b) Leadership style

For the participants of this study, the preferred leadership style is a democratic, accessible and a consultative team based style, which is consistent with findings in other studies where women described their leadership style as more transformational than transactional (Gupton & Slick 1996). In the current study all the women characterised their style of leadership in terms that tended towards a transformational rather than authoritarian type of leadership. Betsy is clear that she is "definitely not authoritarian [but] – more facilitative."

And in the Lee's words:

> I would say I am the opposite of autocratic but perhaps too much so. I have to be honest; I am participative; I am a participative leader; I'm a team person - I believe in doing things through people. So I would regard my leadership style as being informal, as being relaxed, and as being not threatening and easy going… and working through a team.

(c) To change or not to change in order to lead academically or managerially

To accommodate their role as HoD some of the women had to make certain changes in their personal, professional and career lives.

Carol had to change the home environment to suit her work schedule such as switching roles with her husband so that he would take responsibility for dropping off and picking up the kids from school and working a five to three shift while she worked a seven to nine shift. Betsy had to give up some committee activities, but fortunately at home she had steady home help to support her. Brooke found that she had to work longer hours especially going to events in the evening. However, not having family commitments and having an understanding partner helped her cope. She had to learn new skills in managing and motivating people, handling budgets and negotiating. She was able to balance her professional and home life through the support of her partner and by taking one day a

week to have a holiday by the seaside. Balancing home and work life was not a problem for Sally as she has no children and has a supportive husband who shares the house-workload. Like Brooke, Nikki realised that with her new role, she had to spend more time on the job and even had to purchase a flat in the city where she worked so as to stay there during the week and go home only on weekends, whereas before, she could commute daily to and from her home. Fortunately she, like Sally, has no children and has a supportive husband who ensures they have holidays together. In that way she is able to balance her work and home life.

While all the women felt that they did not need to change themselves as women in order to lead managerially, they acknowledged the need to have confidence, to be tougher and more assertive and to learn to be calm under pressure. To reiterate, Cheryl's light-hearted comment says it all: 'I rather like being a woman and I don't think I should change to be a man.'

However, sometimes one has to adopt uncharacteristically male ways of behaviour not because one sets out to be like that, but, according to Lee: 'Some masculine type attributes tend to grow on you with the role. You don't set out to be like that…to take on that kind of attribute such as being more assertive, being more decisive, more of a risk taker…'

(d) Time consuming tasks

The most time consuming tasks listed by the women included meetings, departmental budgets, paperwork such as writing reports and filling in forms, quality assessment issues, emails and such like. This is consistent with findings from other studies such as Smith's (2002). He found that 'paperwork and bureaucracy' followed by 'managing personnel' and 'meetings' were the most time consuming tasks for HoDs.

(e) Departmental and institutional factors facilitating and hindering ability to carry out HoD responsibilities

There must be certain structures in place in the institution and in the department to facilitate the work of the HoD. The participants interviewed in this study identified certain factors in their departments and institutions which, in their experience, facilitated their work as HoD and those which hindered it. Among other factors in the department which made their job easy were having regular meetings, a structure which smoothed the progress of new appointments, having a diary manager, a good team of well qualified, stable staff, and accessible administrative staff. It is apparent then that a good administrative and teaching support structure is important in facilitating the work of the HoD.

At institutional level, participants identified some structures as helpful in their work. These included, leadership training, increase in research income and subsequent flexibility of funding and establishment of a strategic fund which departments could access to support departmental activities. In addition to factors making work easier for the HoD, there are also those which hinder it at departmental and institutional level. The majority of participants cited lack of resources, and lack of time as reasons hindering their work at departmental level. Brooke had this to say: '…didn't, for example, really have somebody to help with IT or web design – those are very important things to have at universities. We were very under-supported so we could never get those things developed.'

For Lee, her predicament was lack of time: 'The factor that hinders me most at departmental level is time. Perhaps time. If I had more time –and that's myself—I have overloaded myself by taking on …that's hindering me most from doing my job better or making a better job of it , is perhaps time.'

At institutional level the participants reported experiencing hindrances to their work such as lack of training for the position, financial constraints, rigid policies and procedures and bureaucratic red tape. Perhaps Carol's experience of red tape is a perfect example of how

hampering the bureaucratic process can be: ‘Sometimes you have to talk to about twenty people to get to the right person to answer your questions. You have to fill in hundreds of forms just to get somebody appointed. It can take about three months.’

Lee feels very strongly about the stringent policies and procedures at her university: ‘There are too many rigid policies and procedures. Because there are no…or the policies and procedures are perhaps not in place or are in the process of being developed, they are or take too great a prominence when they are developed. Whereas if you go to a mature university, they’re there.’

(f) Pleasant and unpleasant moments

After sharing their experiences of job challenges the interviewees were asked to talk about what they found to be rewarding, satisfying and enjoyable aspects of their job as well as any unpleasant moments experienced. A summary of their experiences is given in this section. The most rewarding aspect of the job for the majority of the participants was teaching students, especially the feedback received from them. Satisfaction was also found when academic staff experienced growth and achieved their potential through the help and guidance of the HoD.

The gratitude shown for help received was immensely rewarding. Nikki said:

> The most rewarding things are the personal things when you see…when one of your younger staff gets a promotion or puts in for a particularly prestigious award and receives it… sometimes they write you a note to say, ‘Thank you for your help – you supported me in doing this,’ – those are the things I think that give you huge satisfaction – because you see people grow in the organisation – people starting to achieve their potential.

Carol concurred:

> …interaction with the people in the department, seeing them grow, helping them on with their careers. We are a young department with a lot of young academics still building their careers and perhaps very rewarding to be able to be part of that growth to help them along and talk to them about that and have a nice team spirit in the department. That's a very positive team all working together and that's very important for me and I think I've been able to achieve that over the years that I've been HoD.

For some of the participants, their pleasant moments were experienced when they achieved 'successful outcomes in people and processes' such as approval of courses and programmes; 'setting up a scheme which rewards staff'; 'growth of department in staff and student numbers'; 'seeing tangible changes that occurred during one's term of office'. For others, satisfaction was derived from recognition received or shown about a new programme by the number of students joining it – or in being placed as head of a flagship programme – or in realising that the public had faith in the job.
As Betsy puts it:

> It's rewarding to be able to look back and say things changed… there were tangible changes in the school, you know, that happened while I was the head – curriculum, growth in intake, restructuring from four departments to a single school. The external image – the public faith in the job I really enjoyed.

Regarding unpleasant moments, some of these confirm what the HoDs perceived as a challenge, namely, 'dealing with the budget'. This was frequently mentioned as an unpleasant task. What is interesting to note is that issues to do with staff contracts, disciplinary action, unsatisfactory staff performance, dealing with angry and stressed staff are perceived as merely unpleasant moments rather than as challenges. What is even more curious is that these same issues were not perceived as difficult challenges by the survey participants. This appears to indicate that women HoDs probably only perceive these issues as unpleasant and unsatisfactory tasks rather than challenges.

Brooke put it this way:

> What I did not enjoy …the thing that I didn't enjoy **-** which was very difficult was the budget because I had to tell each department how much money they had, and what things they would have to cut. All of the meetings with the departments were just like battles they were very aggressive and confrontational …unpleasant…like many women I'm not happy in a very aggressive situation in which men thump the table and shout at you and I had to learn how to handle that – but it was handling the resistance that I found a very difficult and unpleasant thing.

Cheryl had this to add:

> I guess the unpleasant things would usually be around being stressed or…that's staff who are angry and stressed because of certain things that have happened – and actually having to deal with that – it's normal, it's part of the job, and I guess the other thing is when you actually …we get… there's a certain amount of stress associated with school tribes –a lot of talk—differences of opinion around that – but that's part of the job too, that's normal.

5.3.4.3 Championing the cause of women

With the exception of two women, the general feeling amongst the women was that they did not think they were obliged to champion the cause of women, but they would be prepared to help a woman in exceptional cases.

Lee thought that if she were living in Australia or New Zealand she would answer in the negative:

> I don't feel obliged because I'm living in South Africa and I have close friends who are black people (I think of two that immediately come to mind) Yes, I would …I would be prepared to go out and beg for them and beg for the gender,

> because of the raw deal that they've had – not only because of their colour in the past, but also because of their gender in the past – so, yes, I would, if I'm called upon to speak on behalf of women.

Sally agreed:

> No, I don't feel *obliged* to do so – I think one does so – one takes opportunity to highlight particular practices that might affect women – particularly young women. But I don't think that I should be obliged to do that. I think that's the mistake, is that every time a woman gets into a leadership position that she should now basically champion the cause of woman only – No I don't believe all women should feel obliged to do that - they shouldn't. But I do think that by practice we should treat everyone equally and evenly and well and each particular person has their own concerns and issues and the ones for women are different from the ones for men, but that doesn't mean women must get preference – I think everything should be even-handed.

Cheryl, on the other hand, had a different view:

> My position is that I think it should be the best person for the task. And I will strongly support women, I'm very sympathetic to the fact that they need support when they have children, and I think you should be as flexible as you possibly can – and also think you should be flexible for many – where the conflict situations arise- it is extremely important that you don't compromise equality here – because there could be demands not because you are a woman , it can be from religion, race and a whole host of things. And I think that actually women can do themselves a disservice if they expect to be treated as special… I'm extremely supportive of all issues on women but I think it's actually about competence – and about the best person for the task.

Carol had this to say: '…not really a champion of women's issues – but if I feel a woman is worthy of promoting, I'll do that'.

Jen was ambivalent: ‘No negative attitude or experience at all. I don’t know about championing women’s cause but I try to do what I can, and do it well so that no finger can be pointed at me for being a female and not being able to cope with the mission and vision.’

From the position the women have taken above, it would appear that they do not wish to be associated with the general perception that a woman in a position of authority is somehow automatically expected to ‘fight for women’s rights’. This is not surprising given the fact that senior women rarely call themselves feminists and often take a male view of behaviour and knowledge for granted. This is Kitch’s (1994) view, as cited in (Reay & Ball 2000:147). However, two of the women were clearly in favour of championing the cause of women: ‘I do like to do what I *can* to support women – because there aren’t enough of us at [this] college and I think it would be a healthier environment if the balance of women and men was better…So I do champion the cause of women.’ (Nikki)

Brooke said: ‘I think it [is] very important to me as a woman to help to champion the cause of women - help other people, disabled people, minority and ethnic people and fight against exclusion or feel like a diversity champion.’

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*5.3.4.4 Perceptions, training, new roles and responsibilities***.**

(a) Perceptions of the role of HoD before and after assumption of role

The women’s perceptions of the role of HoD before they became one themselves varied from naïve to critical. Generally, there were negative perceptions, such as, that HoDs are inaccessible, the job is tough and involves a lot of administration work. One woman expected similarity between industry and university only to find that the university consulting process wastes a lot of time. However, the women acknowledged that the job had changed gradually as understanding of details increased. For instance, being part of a team, has changed the perception about the HoD’s role being aloof. Whereas Carol thought HoDs had given her the impression of being very “busy people with whom one had to make an appointment to see”, the work was in fact not about administration only, but about managing the people and how to do that. Jen’s perceptions have changed from thinking the job was a tough one where one had no time for personal development, to realising that one can delegate and share authority and also be able to develop, teach and research. Betsy thought the head of the school would ‘manage the school and that would be focused inward’, only to realise that there were ‘external constraints’ in addition to the ‘inward responsibilities’. There was an internal and external role to play. Brooke found little divergence from her perceptions and the actual experience of the job. What she did realise though was how lonely and isolated the job could be. She also began to understand the difficulties previous heads had had. Cheryl had sort of a ‘broad-brush’ view of the job. For her nothing has changed except that she is now more aware of the details and complexities of the job.

Two women’s perceptions of the job were profoundly changed by their experience of it in a different environment. Lee came into the job expecting to manage the programme successfully, manage people and deal with students. But she found that it is actually a

'compliance role' rather than leading. There was less flexibility and latitude to be independent, instead the policies and procedures were paralysing. In her own words:

> There's been a change…the policies and procedures within the university,…is something that I'm battling to come to grips with. – I've enjoyed the greater entrepreneurial side that has resulted – but this issue of policies and procedures and putting one in a straitjacket and 'you shall not act outside of that' is something that I'm battling with at the moment and I don't think I'll ever come to terms with it so it has been a change certainly in my perception of the role – actually. No, it's very much a compliance role than leading.

Coming from industry into a university environment, Nikki's perceptions were that things would be more or less similar. In other words she thought the academic environment would be less conservative than industry and people would be positive about change. Instead when she assumed her new role, she found that university processes were much slower than in industry. People expected a consultative process, so she had to modify the way she did things in order to work in the academic environment. She also found strong resistance to change in the academic environment. In her own words:

> Having come back from industry , I was very surprised by the conservatism of the academic environment. Having worked for a company, which I felt was a conservative company,…where employees were quite positive about change and were beginning to see the benefits-- to come back to an academic environment where there is a lot of feeling-- that still-- the way we used to do it had to have been better, there's quite a resistance to change. I hadn't realised that that would be such a strong feeling, and I suppose the other issue that I have is we do things quite slowly in universities—it's a very consultative process compared with industry.

From the women's accounts of their perceptions and experiences of the job, the HoD role, as they came to realise, entails consultation, delegation and sharing of authority, internal and external liaisons, managing people and managing change. Two of the roles

listed here parallel those listed by Briggs (2005:31), where, among others, 'external liaison' and 'staff manager' are aspects of the role of middle manager.

(b) Training

The women had different experiences of training. Although some of the women attended workshops and courses on management and leadership, they believed that on-the-job experience was the best training. None of them had any formal preparation for the job. Of the thirty two women who participated in the study, only four (12.5 per cent) said they had received formal preparation.

According to one of the UK participants, at her university, training is done by an outside trainer. The training offers courses in leadership and change management. Brooke, who works at this university, recommends 'shadowing' as a good component of the training system. Nikki had no specific training but currently has an executive coach who helps her rehearse what she should say. Brooke & Nikki are currently dean and faculty principal (cf 5.2.1). Hence their responses may be influenced by their current experience.

Otherwise, the rest of the women said, apart from workshops and induction courses, they had to rely on other HoDs for help and learn everything along the way. Carol and Tanya both learnt from other HoDs. Jen was in a leadership development programme where training is given in all aspects of leadership skills. Betsy had absolutely no training and she felt it would have been better if there were formal preparation programmes. Cheryl firmly believes that 'experience is the best teacher'. She attended a number of courses on various issues concerning management, and though she found them very helpful, she did not think that it meant one could perform capably until one actually had first hand experience. Sally had no training either, but believes that learning actively in the field works better than learning about it. Workshops and courses are good for networking and listening to other people's experiences, but learning on the job is the best way to find out what you do not know. Lee claims her age has helped her. She believes that one learns through trial and error.

(c) New roles and responsibilities (and new sets of knowledge)

Each of the participants experienced new roles and responsibilities in their HoD position consistent with those cited in the literature (cf 2.4.2.1). The task most frequently mentioned was that of providing intellectual leadership, restructuring the curriculum and designing new programmes in the department. Some descriptive excerpts follow:

> 'managing a complex appraisal system…' 'dealing with changes (restructuring)…' 'changed programmes in response to changing structures and approaches of National Health service'
> 'reviewing programmes in other departments…' 'review of animal ethics within the university...'

Frequently mentioned by the participants is the external role they found themselves having to play: 'external role such as sourcing external funding, promoting the faculty outside…' 'meeting a lot of people and talking to businessmen...'

In addition to these roles, there were new responsibilities, such as: 'increased focus on financial management…' 'more involvement in fundraising…' 'dealing with staff resistant to change…' 'chairing many committee meetings'.

Moreover, there were fresh experiences like: 'being part of management…' 'running a major building project...'

The experience of headship also brought with it new sets of knowledge, such as: 'labour law, in the UK there is lots of new legislation on gender and ethnic issues…' 'contract negotiating skills…' 'conflict and dispute resolution skills…' 'university governance…' 'talking to people outside [the university]…'

5.3.4.5 Valuable advice

All the participants shared valuable advice and 'words of wisdom'. They all encouraged the aspiring HoD to 'go for it!'; 'have confidence and believe in yourself,' and 'build/have a good team around you'. Similar advice was given by an overwhelming number of respondents (Gupton & Slick 1996:148) who recommended to the aspiring female administrator to believe that 'you can do it' (p150). 'Put yourself forward but do it properly!' This emphatic advice from a significant number of respondents indicates that even though an aspiring female administrator should 'go for it', if her assertiveness is too aggressive, she could defeat her purpose.

Lee's advice was:

> I believe the most important thing is that you have to believe in yourself. If you don't believe in yourself, nobody else will. You have to exude to other people around you that you are confident and believe in yourself. That's the first point I want to make-- two points. The second most important, perhaps even more important, you have to believe in the people around you that they can do the work equally as well as you can – and it's *your* belief in that person that makes that person believe in themselves and that's how you get the job done. That's how you're able to achieve your objectives. It's through people. So you must exude confidence – not a false confidence. You must exude a belief in yourself and you must also believe-- genuinely believe-- that that person sitting in that office can do the work , the job- do the work equally if not better than you can – and you must show the person that you have that belief in them.

Sally believes in the importance of having a good team:

> …very, very, important to have a good team around you. Spend a lot of time in the beginning getting to know people – understanding how they work, how they think about you and once they work while they are happy- then they'll perform and make your life easy. So having good people around you is critical.

Nikki encourages women to be as confident as men are…that they *can* do these things. 'I'd just say you can do it, go for it!'

Kathy's advice is the same 'I say go for it, go for it! Don't focus on the fact that you're a woman but on the fact that you're competent.'

Networking and taking time off for oneself is Brooke's recommendation. Carol's advice is "balance your work and home life". "Be choosy, don't always feel pressured" advises Betsy. Jen believes that "it is important to delegate and not take everything on your own shoulders". The women strongly endorsed the attitude 'have confidence in yourself and your abilities – and at the same time believe in those around you and help them believe in themselves too.'

5.3.4.6 Other significant issues shared by participants

According to the interview schedule, other issues arose during the course of discussions. These were either a response to what another participant had shared, an elaboration on a particular issue or a result of a probe by the researcher. Various key points were raised.

(a) Mentoring

One participant had a definite opinion on mentoring, which she acknowledged as crucial and. Mentoring of a woman does not necessarily have to be by a woman.

Nikki's opinion is:

> I think mentoring is critical. I would also agree that mentoring a woman doesn't need to be by a woman. In my earlier career I had two excellent mentors for many years and indeed while you're in an organisation where there aren't many women in senior roles one of the roles of the mentor I think also is to act as the advocate for the people that are mentored once suitable roles come up and therefore you

> know by definition that many of the bright young women coming through in this organisation should have male mentors because the people that are going to be there who …recognise the opportunities and advise and support women and go forward for them are going to quickly conceal these opportunities and by definition some of them are going to be men. I actually agree that while we assume that women should be mentored by women – you're in danger of not giving the women coming through, the view of the whole organisation and the view of the whole range of opportunities it can offer. So I'm very much for that, and I think that's very important. Then of course also mentoring depends very much on there being some kind of personal spark between the people that people actually get on and find each other interesting and stimulating and challenging to talk to. So mentoring is easy to say but actually it's quite hard to make happen effectively because the mentees have to be quite proactive in making sure they get mentors whom they can work with and also who are at the higher level of the organisation who are going to be able to help them in their career paths.

It appears, therefore, a woman with a male mentor may stand a better chance of being exposed to available opportunities, advice and support. The people in the organisation who are most likely to have all of this at their disposal are senior people who are most likely to be men. For mentoring to be effective, mentors must be trained. A system of matching mentor and mentee should be in place, because as Sally comments:

> Mentoring is not supervising and it's not all sorts of other things. It's some very special spark that happens…you can't put two people together in a room and then hope –it has to come from within, from both mentor and the mentee.

Consistent with Brooks' (1997) findings, mentoring is considered an important strategy but implementation can be a problem, especially with regard to the selection of a mentor. The scarcity of women in senior roles (cf 3.3.3 (i), Gupton & Slick 1996) would inevitably make it difficult to find enough mentors for 'women by women', and would, if applied, place a heavy burden on the few senior women available. Mentees must therefore to be 'proactive' and flexible in their choice of a mentor.

(a) New managerialism

The participants who discussed the issue of the 'new managerialism' focused on the contrast between the way it operates in industry and in academia. It is crucial to recognise these differences. They emphasised that employers and employees relate very differently in industry and in universities (cf 2.2). Consequently, processes from industry cannot be imported wholesale into the academic environment even if they work well in the corporate world. Although similar processes to those in industry, are now being applied in academia, the implementation strategy of these ought to be different because "you can't just import – you absolutely can't just import processes from one to the other— from industry to university", states Nikki who has vast experience in various managerial positions in industry.

This sums up her experience of the 'new managerialism':

> I think those issues, a lot of issues, that industry has been dealing with over the last twenty years are becoming more important in academia. I think one of the mistakes is to assume that you can merely translate the same management books and that those ways of working will work in the academic environment, because they don't. I think there are issues of being more strategic – because there is a lot more – it's a lot more important these days that we address problems from an interdisciplinary point of view- so we do need to find ways of bringing people together across conventional departmental boundaries and we… now even in big research intensive institutions like [ours] – we can't do research in every area of science and engineering. We do have to focus – we do have to go through a process to develop high level strategy, we do have to look at operational efficiency absolutely critically… so just as you know in terms of our finance staff, our HR staff – of where we manage our building- it's crucial that we have to set, kind of, targets for operational efficiency that you might have in managing or in running a factory. But it's just that we have to implement them in different ways. I think there are plenty of bits of management approach of simplifying processes of…and crucially communication of why we doing things, of how people can get engaged… but industry has been , I think doing better than

> universities – but I think the bit that I see that has been quite negative in universities has been this assumption that you could quite wholesale take what industry does and put it in university and expect it to work.

The practice of using consultants in universities is now quite common. However their ideas –which may work well in the corporate world – could fail to produce the desired effect in the academic world. As both Nikki and Sally observe:

> …you can bring in a consultant that industry uses to do process improvement and put them in an academic environment and expect it to work because you have to recognise in academia you're actually dealing with much brighter people who have been trained to argue and who expect a much higher level of concentration and also whose relationship with the organisation they work for is different.

> …there are some processes from industry that need to be applied but what has happened is,… you get the consultants in that work well in industry and they can't find themselves in universities and actually having not been in the frontline, been in the 'trenches' is extremely disadvantageous to those people. I can just think of an example of …recently that we should merge into…into one physical spot because that will make them work better together without… kind of… not recognising the intimate relationship that goes on between a Head and a secretary – or the different way of operating which is not recognised.

The emphasis on efficiency (cf 2.2) which characterises the corporate world seems to have a negative effect on academics. HoDs find themselves inundated with paperwork which is frustrating, exhausting, time consuming and frequently irrelevant. Impersonal completion of numerous forms seems to have replaced personal fostering of relationships between HoD and staff, and between staff and students. According to Sally's experience, instead of investigating why a postgraduate supervisor is not meeting her students, management would devise a system of monitoring performance by means of forms with tick boxes to be completed at every meeting.

This may erode relationships between students and their supervisors and make the procedure mechanical and so reduce the efficiency of the academic processes. Nikki has a similar experience of 'tick boxes' at her university. She is clearly not in favour of this strategy and other industry related processes that operate in academia as she feels that all of this is frustrating and irrelevant for staff. In her words:

> We've had a huge government interest in measuring quality in universities in the UK – measuring teaching quality, measuring research quality and particularly on the teaching quality level – they seem to believe that importing the kind of quality management processes that industry was getting rid of ten years ago, all of this checking, detailed…not actually looking if the product is any good, but checking the process, filling the tick boxes in, checking that everything is being completed , every change in course has been documented and approved by a committee and that's all recorded…is an exhausting act since I moved out of the university and came back, enormous amounts of acts have landed on us – and it really does seem like the stuff industry has …was throwing away… all at the end of the production line checking, which is done by training the manufacturing better so they don't have to be checked up on and we've imported all that into the university and it really gets the academic staff down. I don't think it improves quality it merely absorbs time that they could otherwise be spending on improving the quality (laughs)…I think that's very frustrating and I must say I'd like to get rid of most of that but a lot of that thrust is now imposed by government organisations. I think we've got to fight it as a group--as a university network in the UK , rather than on an individual university basis.

These women's experience of the 'new managerialism' is a clear expression of disillusionment at the replacement of the academic system of values and management processes by the corporate mechanical one. Their disappointment endorses the point raised by Simkins (2005:13-14), in his article on 'Leadership in Education' which discusses the debate around the replacement of values, "within which professionals are free to exercise power in the best interests of their clients", with 'managerialist' values and processes.

(b) Change management

Nikki compares her experience of how people deal with change in industry and in university. She finds industry employees less resistant to change than university academics. Coming back into academia, Nikki was surprised by how resistant to change academics were:

> Here are people who in their research are pushing forward the frontiers and challenging established notions, yet in terms of the environment in which they operate and where they work everyday… you start changing the colour of the corridors and they get nervous.

What is significant, in the women's observations, is the gender difference in relation to change. Both Nikki and Sally, who shared their views on this issue, felt that women generally seemed to handle change more easily than men. They were able to be at the forefront of things and to contribute to what is going on. In other words, women seem to be more flexible in embracing change and moving with it. Men seem to find it more difficult to adjust to change and instead tend to alienate themselves. As Nikki remarked, "…put on their blinkers and get on with their teaching or research as they've always done". A difficult challenge in the women's experience of change management is to get the 'teaching oriented' and 'research oriented' staff to engage in both teaching and research. Some are more interested in the one than the other and it is difficult to convince them of the importance of engaging in both. Responding to Nikki, Sally shares her initial frustration and eventual success with the issue of research and teaching:

> In South Africa by far the most difficult thing to do in running an academic department at [my university] and trying to do exactly what you are saying to get teachers researching and researchers teaching, and when I was HoD, there was a subset of people that had largely become the teachers – they were very very good teachers, in fact many of them were prize-winning type of teachers, but their careers were, not moving because they were just teaching. And there were others who had moved into research, and it took quite a few years, a good three years to

> really work hard trying to get people to see that the best way forward is no one way or the other but both. The people who were reluctant to relinquish their entire load were the researchers. They tended to think that that was their right of course and it was an endless, endless battle to get researchers to teach and teachers to research – probably that was the biggest successes I had.

In Nikki's opinion communication is an essential skill required by leaders in universities to alter management. She believes that:

> The level of training and skill that leaders in universities need in communication and change of management is actually higher than it is in industry and yet it's that kind of training which is almost absent in universities. It's assumed that these people can lecture because they can go into a presentation in a conference and that they know what communication is; and actually communication on that level of addressing people's anxieties is very different from communication at a level of telling on the latest research idea; they are two different kinds of communication you do in rather different ways, and so I think communication and change management as well as the strategy are really core to managing a big group at university. As HoD we should spend more time in university really exploring how we can make that happen.

(c) The position of women in the UK and South Africa after 1994

In general it appears that some effort is being made by management in universities in South Africa to get more women into leadership positions. Commenting on the situation at her university, Betsy says while she does not think they have reached the numbers they want, they have made tremendous strides over the years in the number of women in top management. They now have women in professorships and the number has increased a lot over the years. In the UK, the situation differs from university to university. Commenting on the situation at her university Brooke says:

> My university is not too good. Because it's a very old-fashioned university and change is quite difficult; but some of the new universities, which we call post '94 universities, are much better and have more women, but there is still a general problem at the very top levels. Although, it must be said, that a lot of women are becoming professors now. So I wouldn't want to give a gloomy position. I think things are changing. It's, however, more difficult to get them to go into management, partly because a management role is very tough. The situation in the UK is very bad at the moment because universities are not well funded and it's very competitive and you have to become very ruthless and assertive and a lot of women do not really want to take on jobs that are stressful like that. I think that's creating a problem that women don't put themselves forward for the very top jobs such as vice-chancellor.

(d) Self- promotion

Asked to comment on whether it is good or bad to promote oneself, the women felt that while there is nothing wrong with promoting oneself and being assertive, the challenge is the manner in which it is done. One should not do it in a way that comes across as selfish or ambitious. Brooke shares her experience:

> I think you do have to push yourself but it depends on how you do it – not bad if you deserve it. I think you have to learn to do it but you must do it in a way that people don't think you are just a selfish careerist, and there are some women I know who are just being so nakedly ambitious. Somehow people don't expect a woman to be so ambitious – do they? And it can come over quite badly and if there has been somebody like that and they got shouts from people below them – so if you have to put yourself forward – I think you have to do it but not just 'I want to get to the top' but 'I want to get to the top because I want to help make this a better place for people to work in' so that you take people with you. You have to be strong because otherwise people will just steam-roll you; so you need to practise to be assertive as I'm sure you can. Also one thing you could do is to keep highlighting to your seniors the things that you've done … so that they can identify with what you've said, 'I'm somebody who likes to get things done- to

> have projects and to bring change'. Sometimes people don't notice that and reward you enough; so you need to be good at telling people what you've done – sell yourself. I don't think women like doing this very much – they don't seem quite trained to do it – men seem to find it quite easy to do.

Betsy concurs:

> A big challenge with being assertive is if you alienate the people around you. I think we need to tell the next generation, don't be afraid of selling yourself – of going after what you want because I think that is what is required of women. Women need to be assertive enough to say I don't want this, I don't need this. I'm not going to be pushed into a position simply because we have affirmative equity quotas to fill. I think a woman should think about what is best for the organisation and put that as a priority over what's best for me; and so … I think we need to be assertive in terms of what's best for me that needs to be right up front there…. You can make yourself known by choosing very carefully which committees you going to be involved in. You have to think very strategically as a woman you have many choices. We have faculty structures and other committees that you can be involved in. Some of them are more powerful than others. That's the one way in which you can really make yourself known.

(e) Issues of transformation

In South African universities, transformation was implemented to achieve proportional representation of all races in all sectors of universities. Sally's perception of this issue is, that in a bid to change the image of the country from what it was in the past (before the new political dispensation of 1994), changes have been brought about too rapidly, resulting in people being promoted to positions before they are fully capable of filling them. This impacts negatively upon their career and upon the organisation. Transformation is being implemented too rapidly resulting in "very inexperienced people in very senior jobs." She believes that although it may take a short while to achieve fair representation of students and staff of all races, it takes much longer academically to train

a leader and an even longer time for those previously excluded from institutions of higher learning in South Africa**.** In her opinion it would appear that some people accept the position of HoD for its prestige value rather than for promoting the interests of the department because of their inability to carry out all the responsibilities required of someone in that particular position.

In the UK, according to Nikki's experience, the tendency is to have outstanding academics being promoted to HoD on the basis of their academic excellence but without adequate people management skills. The result is that when confronted with controversial issues requiring their leadership intervention, they tend to 'duck out' and not confront the issues. So actually, Nikki feels, some individuals are "promoted inappropriately to some of these roles without the full skills set" which they need to successfully perform the job of HoD.

5.4. SUMMARY

Quantitative and qualitative information obtained from the survey and focus group interviews are presented in this chapter. Key findings from a survey of twenty three women HoDs and significant themes arising from the interviews of nine women HoDs have been presented and discussed. The final chapter (six) closes with a synthesis of significant findings, conclusions and implications for policy and research.

CHAPTER 6 : SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study has been to investigate, compare and document the experiences of women academic HoDs in higher education management in South Africa and the United Kingdom with a view to understanding the challenges and responsibilities entailed by the middle management position of HoD for women in the current climate of transformation and restructuring in universities. Such an understanding would provide an insight into the female perspective of management and leadership and thereby promote a deeper appreciation of the contribution of women to higher education leadership and management. In this chapter a synthesis of significant findings, conclusions and implications for policy and research are presented.

6.1.1 Overview of the investigation

In this section an overview of the foregoing study is presented in taking into account the research problem set forth in 1.3.

In this study the experiences of women HoDs in universities in South Africa and the UK have been investigated and compared. The absence of women in senior positions of leadership and management at universities is well documented and so are the barriers that prevent women from advancing into senior leadership and management positions (see 1.1). In addition little or no investigation has been carried out into what happens to women once they attain positions of leadership and management in organisations. In short, few studies have attempted to document the experiences of women who have, against all odds, ‘shattered the glass ceiling’ in academe. This study was motivated by a longitudinal study into gender representation patterns at several South African universities between 2000 and 2002. The findings revealed that women were in the minority in middle and senior management positions in universities. This prompted an investigation of how the few women had managed to achieve these positions and how they were experiencing the situation.

6.1.2 Overview of the literature study

The study of women and leadership/management is a recent phenomenon chiefly because, historically, leadership has been concerned with the study of political leadership. Most leadership research prior to the 1980s was carried out by men and dealt exclusively with male leaders (2.3.2). Many studies on women in leadership and management have focused mainly on the barriers that prevent them from advancing to senior management roles within organisations (1.1). Little or no research has examined the experiences of the women who have overcome these barriers and moved into middle or senior management positions although it is acknowledged that women are often clustered in middle management positions (1.1, 2.3.2). This study has focused on women in middle management in the academe and their experiences with regards to the challenges, opportunities, constraints, roles and responsibilities associated with the position of HoD in a university. The female experience is worth investigating, particularly because research has indicated the value of the female perspective to leadership and management (1.1.1, 2.3).

The current climate of restructuring and transformation in universities has important implications for the HoD, the most inevitable being role conflict and ensuing tensions (1.1.1, 2.4.2.1 i). One of the consequences of higher education transformation concerns a move from the traditional collegial culture to a corporate culture (1.1.1, 1.2, 2.2), and this has important consequences for leadership and management in the academe. One of those consequences is an 'identity crisis' for academics who have to decide whether they are academic leaders or line managers. The distinction between management and leadership is an interesting subject of debate and much has been written about it. In brief, the manager pays attention to *how* things are done and a leader pays attention to *what* the events and decisions mean to participants (2.3.1). However, leaders and managers are not two different types of people; leadership cannot replace management; it should be complementary to management. In this new era of management within organisations, there is a paradigm shift from the rational management approach to a leadership approach

that values change, empowerment and relationships and [thus] requires managers to become effective leaders (Daft 2005:15-16).

The context in which universities operate today is being rapidly altered by changes in technology, increasing international competition and globalisation of the economy (2.3.2). As a result, there is a demand for new skills and fresh ways of working which require innovative abilities from the new leaders and managers (2.3.2). Innovative communication skills are required as well as managers who are flexible and adaptable enough to thrive in constantly changing environments (2.3.2). Many of these changes in approach, attitudes, and ways of working (2.3.2) are more likely to be applicable to women managers than to male managers. Studies, which have examined women managers and effective ways of managing in the changing environment, have found common traits. Women leaders are often described as empathetic, supportive, relationship-building, power-sharing, information sharing, co-operative, collaborative, fair, team-oriented, task oriented, committed, honest, good communicators, consultative and conciliatory and so on (2.3.2). These qualities describe 'female leadership style'. Although the 'male script' of leadership and by association, 'leadership style' is still firmly entrenched in organisations, with universities being the main culprits of male hegemony (2.3.2), it is now being acknowledged that the female style of leadership may indeed be what today's organisations require. For instance, it has been found that women leaders have a propensity for transformational leadership styles. This would probably make them more suitable leaders in the new corporate, academic environment in which emphasis is on team-work and the pursuit of fresh values and visions (2.3.3). Women managers are said to be persuasive, influential and charismatic and make extensive use of interpersonal skills (2.3.2). Moreover leadership in this century demands the type of skills commonly associated with women, such as, alternative ways of problem-solving and dealing with conflict.

The job of HoD is associated with numerous roles and responsibilities. These have probably changed, over time, from concern for the individual welfare of faculty to creating successful working synergy among department personnel as well as from being an advocate for department desires to linking the work of the department to the broader

institution and external audience (2.4.2.1 i). As the first line administrator, the HoD becomes the key link between the administration of the institution, the department, academic staff, support staff and students. She is expected to give the discipline its specific institutional shape, texture or colour (2.4.2.1 i) and to provide intellectual leadership. At the same time the HoD is expected to facilitate and encourage the work of the individual and of the group, to serve the group by embracing their values and goals as well as being a leader who inspires and directs by creating a positive climate within the department. She is also expected to attract resources and manage conflict especially during times of change. The new HoD faces many transitions, such as, shifting from specialist to generalist, from focusing on one's discipline to representing a broader range of inquiries within the department, and from being an individual to looking at the whole departmental operation (2.4.2.5).

Although statistics show a positive trend toward the representation of women in the academe (3.2), the situation is different when it comes to women's representation in higher academic ranks and in senior management (see 1.1, 3.2.1 & Tables 3.4, 3.6). Obstacles still exist. However, there are strategies that, women themselves and institutions can adopt to overcome and dismantle these obstacles (3.3.2.2). It is apparent that much still needs to be done. Therefore a cross-sectional survey research approach employing both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview) data collection methods was chosen to conduct an exploratory and descriptive study of the lived experiences of thirty two female HoDs in universities in South Africa and the UK (4.4). The women were selected by purposeful sampling and data were collected by means of structured pre-coded questionnaires which were sent by overland post and semi-structured focus group interviews conducted using VConf-FGI (4.4). Quantitative and narrative data were gathered and subjected to frequency analyses and 'topic oriented' qualitative analysis involving identification of, and organisation according to, key themes (4.4.2.5, 4.4.2.6 & 4.4.3.5, 4.4.3.6). Demographic, employment, department and staffing profiles were gathered and discussed (5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.2.3 & 5.3.2). Key topics in the survey and the interviews related to career profile/prior experience; skills; roles and responsibilities; job challenges; perceptions of role; tasks and functions were presented and discussed (5.2 & 5.3) Emerging themes from these topics were synthesised and

discussed (5.3.3). Significant findings which emerged from the quantitative and qualitative investigations were synthesised, and interpreted in relation to the research questions and aims posed at the beginning of the study (6.2). These resulted in conclusions (6.3) and recommendations concerning women, policy, and research (6.4) in academic institutions.

6.1.3 Organisation of material

The findings of the quantitative and qualitative investigation presented in chapter 5 are synthesised in 6.2. This is followed by conclusions drawn from the findings (6.3) and recommendations and implications for policymaking and future research (6.4) ending with a discussion of the limitations of the study (6.5).

6.2 SYNTHESIS OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

Significant findings which emerged from the quantitative and qualitative investigations are synthesised, and interpreted especially in relation to the research questions and aims posed at the beginning of the study. The process moves from a description of the lived experiences of the women HoDs (ch. 5) to an interpretation of the meaning of the lived experiences (Creswell 2007:62). In the process of synthesising and interpreting, the relevant findings are compared with those from previous studies as reviewed in the literature presented in chapters 2 and 3. Tentative conclusions regarding the experiences of women academic HoDs are drawn and recommendations for institutional policy and future research are made.

The principal aim of this study has been to investigate the experiences of women academic HoDs in higher education management in South Africa and the UK with the following intentions:

- to describe the challenges, opportunities and constraints experienced by women academic HoDs prior to advancing to middle management positions

- to explore the academic HoD's experiences of her job as middle manager with its attendant tensions between various roles and responsibilities

- to explore the experiences of leadership and management of a small sample of academic women HoDs in universities in South Africa and the UK

- to develop a set of recommendations, using the findings, for the improvement of the career development of women academic HoDs and aspiring women academic leaders and managers and as well as for policy development by academic policymakers.

The next section presents the essence of each significant issue as the participants commonly experienced it.

6.2.1 Challenges, opportunities and constraints

Women, in general, seem to experience a lot of challenges and constraints before they make it into positions of authority. Academic women are no exception. These challenges and constraints are often related to the obstacles they have to overcome to advance themselves in their careers. However the findings of this study seem to suggest that the women who participated in the study experienced little or no challenges and constraints before they advanced to middle management positions; at least not to the same extent as after they were already in the position. For instance, the majority of them seemingly did not find it difficult to become HoD as they were self-motivated and had adequate support from colleagues and family. Their involvement in managerial work together with publications and qualifications enabled them to move into the HoD position with relative ease (5.2.3). Moreover they were motivated to accept the job chiefly by a desire to make a contribution to the development of their departments particularly with regards to research. An additional incentive was to understand the systems and policies of the university (5.3.3.1). Nonetheless the situation changed once they were in the middle management position.

6.2.1.1 Career advancement opportunities and constraints

Employment equity or equal opportunities policy (in the case of the UK see 3.3.2.1 iii) (Brooks 1997), lack of mentorship and lack of formal preparation in the form of professional development programs (Walton 1997), appear to have been the major constraints for the women in this study before and after assuming the HoD position. Very few of these women experienced mentorship (see Gupton & Slick 1996:36) or participated in training programs designed to develop management and leadership skills (5.2.3). Although the women had some experience of training in the form of workshops and courses on management and leadership, none of them had any formal preparation for the job. What is noteworthy is the women's strong belief in 'learning-by-doing' or 'on-the-job' training, suggesting that they found 'experience is the best teacher' (5.3.4.4(b). Consequently mentoring and training should be advocated in universities. It would also be advisable for mentees to be 'proactive' and flexible in their choice of a mentor(5.3.4.6(a).

The literature abounds with reference to 'women's lack of aspiration for administrative/management roles' (see 3.3.2.1, Gupton & Slick 1996). Nonetheless the findings of this study suggest that women frequently want to move into senior management positions. Only a few were either uncertain or clearly unwilling to trade their family responsibilities and love for teaching for a life of administration and management (5.3.3.3).

Hence, one of the main 'obstacles' to advancement (even for those who are not interested in advancing) seems to be the dual role of career and family (5.3.3.3 b, Lemmer 1989). Some hindrances are personal in nature and others are organisational/institutional (see 3.3.2.1). The findings indicate that starting an academic career late in life is as much an impediment to career advancement as lack of experience or lack of a good research profile. Institutional advertising policies, which make it difficult for women to compete fairly, can also be as much of a hindrance as lack of support from the dean of a faculty (5.3.3.3 b).

Various strategies for overcoming obstacles to career advancement are suggested in the literature (see 3.3.2.2). The main strategies suggested by the participants in this study are determination and perseverance (5.3.3.3 b). This is confirmed in (Gupton & Slick 1996). This suggests that women are tenacious and have the capacity to continue with a given course of action until it is completed. This positive attribute particularly for someone in a position of authority implies that positive leadership and management action undertaken will not be abandoned until results have been achieved.

6.2.2 The experience of middle management

The job of middle manager comes with many challenges, roles and responsibilities. A combination of the findings from the survey and interviews revealed four major challenges encountered by women HoDs in their job. These were related to issues of restructuring and transformation, the budget, research and time management (5.2.4.3, Tables 5.8, 5.9, 5.10 & 5.3.3.2). The finding on 'time management' as a challenge for the women in this study seems to imply that HoDs may have difficulty fitting in the numerous responsibilities and tasks they have within the available time. It is most probably not an indication of any inefficiency on their part.

Of the aspects of academic leadership which were perceived as demands, 'facilitating and encouraging the work of the individual and of the group' (see 2.4.2.1 i) was seen as the major demand experienced of the HoD, whereas 'being a servant of the group who embraces the group's values and goals' was the least demanding (5.2.4.9, Tables 5.26, 5.27, 5.28).

HoDs are expected to promote and encourage excellence in teaching and research as well as provide long term direction and vision for the department while performing the maintenance functions of preparing budgets, and handling finances (see 2.4.2.1). They also have conflicting demands and expectations, not the least of which is providing an enabling environment for both individual staff members and the entire group to succeed. In other words, she has to ensure that individual as well as team work are encouraged. Therefore, in view of the fact that the HoD must provide intellectual leadership in the

restructuring of the curriculum and in designing new programmes, it is inevitable that she would need strong support networks and strategies to overcome the challenges. Contrary to common practice in universities, the findings suggest that using consultants to address challenges is not an appropriate strategy.

Instead the recommended strategies include:

- retaining and nurturing staff
- being transparent and fair
- balancing personal and professional activities and
- identifying members of other racial groups for promotion and development (5.2.4.4, Tables 5.11, 5.12, 5.13 & 5.3.4.6 b).

The results of this study also indicate that the HoD's roles include among others, external liaison (see 2.4.2.1, 5.3.4.4 a), communicator, nurturer, visionary and decision maker (Sherman 2000). The role also includes consultation, delegation, sharing of authority, managing people and managing change (5.3.3.4 a). Various responsibilities are associated with the job and the findings of the study indicate that the HoD is accountable for:

- staff recruitment/selection
- performance appraisal
- promoting staff development
- chairing departmental meetings and managing finances (5.2.4.6, Tables 5.17, 5.18, 5.19).

The findings also reveal that being a HoD brings with it new experiences, such as, being part of management. At the same time fresh knowledge and skills are gained. Some of the participants reported gaining skills in contract negotiation and conflict resolution (5.3.4.4 d).

Part of the experience of being HoD involves making use of several skills for the effective running of the department. The findings revealed that the participants have a

poor skill level in relation to stress management, delegation and entrepreneurial skills (5.2.4.2, Tables 5.5, 5.6, 5.7), although, they were better at several skills which they considered significant for the job of HoD (5.2.4.1, Tables 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.3.4.1 a). These proficiencies included problem solving, written communication, listening and decisiveness (5.2.4.2, Tables 5.5, 5.6, 5.7). Regarding teaching and research it was a surprise to discover, that, although these were not perceived by the participants as important skills in their position as HoD and had rated themselves poorly in regard to these skills, they nevertheless considered teaching and research as important functions. The implication seems to be that the performance of these functions by the HoD is not necessarily related to her level of skill in them.

6.2.3 Academic leadership and management

Ramsden (1998) observes that academic leadership may be distinctive from other forms of leadership in that it involves undergoing specific kinds of intellectual training. But just how big the distinction is, is not certain. What should be recognised is that there is an increasing overlap between academic leadership and other forms of leadership. Therefore, "the task for training university leaders and managers of the future is to produce people who are adept at operating in that zone of overlap" (Ramsden 1998:123).

The main results concerning academic leadership and management, including leadership style, as experienced by female HoDs who participated in the study, follow:

- a HoD is primarily a leader not a manager, although aspects of both leadership and management are necessary for the role (5.2.4.7, Tables 5.20, 5.21, 5.22, 5.3.4.2 a)
- power sharing, professionalism, integrity, personal example and persistence are very important aspects of departmental leadership and management (5.2.4.5, Tables 5.14, 5.15, 5.16)
- leadership style is participative, co-operative, empathetic and democratic (5.2.4.8, Tables 5.23, 5.24, 5.25, 5.3.4.2 b).

6.3 DISCLOSURE

The investigation into the experiences of female HoDs in universities in South Africa and the UK reveals that:

- institutional and other barriers to women's advancement to senior management positions still exist

- there seem to be fewer constraints to becoming a HoD than there are to advancing from HoD to more senior positions

- contrary to what is generally assumed, women do not lack aspiration to senior management roles

- the HoD is a decision maker not an entrepreneur

- the HoD does not have to be skilled in all areas of her job as she can perform some tasks and functions through other skilled personnel in the department by delegating responsibilities to, and sharing authority with them
- the challenges and demands experienced by the HoD in her job may be a source of stress and tension

- the female HoD is not only a good and empathetic listener but she is also a professional person who strives to lead by example and who values integrity and persistence

- women academic leaders tend to exhibit the desired 'interactive leadership' style (Daft 2005) found in women leaders of corporate organisations.

6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings and subsequent conclusions certain recommendations are made. These are aimed at:

- women aspiring to leadership
- those already in leadership and management positions
- institutions
- policy.

Finally, suggestions for possible future research are made. The researcher earnestly hopes that women and institutions will take a critical consideration of the subsequent recommendations.

6.4.1 Women

It is recommended that women aspiring to as well as those already in leadership and management positions:

- plan early for career advancement
- involve themselves in managerial work to gain experience
- develop a good research profile
- be proactive in choosing their mentors
- be bold and confident, persistent and determined in the pursuit of their goals
- form networks with other women in similar positions.

6.4.2 Institutions

It is recommended that:

- institutions encourage the formation of academic and leadership support networks for women
- deans of faculties support women who aspire to move up the academic ladder instead of frustrating them

- institutions formulate policies geared at fast tracking women with leadership potential
- employment equity policies be fairly implemented so as not to advantage one ethnic or racial group over another.

6.4.3 Policy

6.4.3.1 Training

Pre-service and in-service leadership and management training programmes should be introduced to train and support aspirant women with leadership potential. These training programmes should include the female perspective of leadership and management as well as place particular emphasis on certain skills like:

- communication
- change management
- people management
- stress management
- time management
- diversity management
- financial management
- conflict resolution
- delegation.

6.4.3.2 Mentorship

Mentorship and mentoring programmes should be introduced and a flexible system of allocating mentors should be adopted. For instance, mentoring a woman does not necessarily have to be by another woman. The choice should be left to the mentee to take the initiative to recommend a mentor with whom she is compatible. Women aspiring to

middle or senior management positions should therefore be encouraged to participate in mentoring and formal preparation programmes designed by the institution.

6.4.3.3 Advertising and promotion procedures

Advertising and promotion procedures should be structured to give first preference to internal candidates, especially women.

6.4.4 Research

It is recommended that further research concerning female HoDs, focusing on investigating events in the external environment which may impact on the internal university environment to shape the work of the head of department, be carried out. Findings from such investigations could be included in leadership and management training workshops/ programmes.

Future research should also examine the relationship between female leadership style and staff performance. Daft (2005:438-39) observes that:

> Today's flatter, team-based organisations are no longer looking for top-down authority figures[such as males] but for more collaborative and inclusive approaches to leadership... women's interactive leadership seems appropriate for the future of diversity and learning organisations.

Training female academic leaders would ensure the development of a selection of much needed leadership talent.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the present study was to increase understanding of the management experiences of a particular group of people, that is, academic women HoDs.

These are generally a small selection of people because of their under-representation in the academe.

Consequently, as the aim of the study was to focus on universities where women HoDs are present, a random sampling technique was not employed. Therefore, universities with no female HoDs were excluded from the study. Subsequently the study has a restricted dataset which may limit generalisation of its findings. Since the study is exploratory and largely descriptive in nature, no attempt was made to put forward hypotheses to be rejected or confirmed. Rather, an attempt was made to establish patterns and trends and relationships between certain variables in the quantitative part of the study, and to understand and describe the management and leadership experiences of women HoDs in the qualitative part. The intent of focus groups is not to infer but to understand, not to generalise but to determine the range, and not to make statements about the population but to provide insights about how people in the groups perceive a situation. Although the sample was representative in terms of race (black & white), it was predominantly white. The results will probably reflect that.

6.6 CONCLUSION

While it is encouraging to note that the Employment Equity Policy in South Africa, and its UK equivalent Equal Opportunities Policy, advocate the removal of obstacles to the advancement of women and encourage their full participation and contribution to higher education, especially at senior levels (3.3.2.1 iii), numerous barriers still exist.

Although it is generally assumed that women's particular style of leadership is better suited to 'today's 'flatter team-based organisations'(Daft 2005), there are still insufficient women beyond the level of HoD in universities. However, more women seem eager to advance themselves despite the odds against them. More effort is required, then, to ensure that the female style of leadership is encouraged and promoted.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Dear Participant,

The survey contained here is part of a comparative study on Women in management in universities in South Africa and the UK. The data obtained will be used for the Doctoral thesis of Ms C.B. Zulu.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the management and leadership experiences of academic women in higher education management in the context of a transforming and changing university environment. In particular, the study examines the challenges and successes of leading an academic department. Your cooperation in responding to the questions posed here will be greatly appreciated. I wish to assure you that your input will be held in the strictest confidence and your identity will remain anonymous.

Please read through the questions carefully. There are no correct or incorrect responses. The questionnaire is divided into sections each with a sub-title. Instructions on how to complete the questionnaire appear at the beginning of each section. The instrument has been adapted from various established instruments with the bulk of it from Seagren, A.T. et al's 'Academic leadership in community colleges'.

You are kindly requested to answer all questions. All attempts will be made to give you feedback on the findings should you so wish.

For more information and/ or request for feedback, please contact:

Constance B. Zulu
DEd student
zuluc@uniwest.ac.za

Prof. E. Lemmer
Promoter
lemmeem@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX B

SURVEY FOLLOW UP LETTER

Dear Participant

This is a follow up reminder to kindly complete and return the enclosed questionnaire.

May I reiterate that the purpose of this study is to investigate the management and leadership experiences of academic women in higher education management, specifically in universities. I sincerely believe that your contribution to this research would be invaluable and therefore appeal to you to kindly take a few minutes of your time to complete and return the questionnaire before the end of May 2006.

Yours sincerely

_____

APPENDIX C

VIDEO CONFERENCE FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW LETTER OF INVITATION

From:_____

To: _____

Subject: Invitation to Participate in a Video Conference Focus Group Interview

Dear_____

Hello, my name is Constance Zulu. I am currently doing a research study focusing on the experiences of women in management in universities in South Africa and the UK.

I would like to invite you to participate in a video conference focus group interview at which you will have the opportunity to share your valuable experiences of managing an academic department with one or two other women academic heads of department from South Africa and the UK.

If you agree to participate, kindly let me know by e-mail at your earliest convenience. Here are the details of the interview which has been scheduled:

DATE OF INTERVIEW_____

TIME_____

VENUE_____

CONTACT PERSON_____

I will send you the interview schedule prior to the interview day so that you can familiarize yourself with the issues to be discussed.

Looking forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely

_____

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

Serial number

1-3

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In all cases place a cross[X] in the appropriate box. Select one option only, unless otherwise indicated

1. Age group

25-29	1	
30-34	2	
35-40	3	
41-45	4	
46-50	5	
51-55	6	
55 +	7	

4

2. Level of education (please indicate your highest qualification only)

Diploma	1	
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	2	
Honours degree or equivalent	3	
Masters degree	4	
Doctorate	5	

5

3. Academic rank:

Lecturer	1	
Senior lecturer	2	
Associate professor	3	
Full professor	4	

6

4. Marital status :

Single never married	1	
Married	2	
Separated	3	
Divorced	4	

7

FOR SA PARTICIPANTS ONLY

5. Race :

Black :African	1	
Coloured	2	
Indian	3	
White	4	
Other	5	

8

FOR SA PARTICIPANTS ONLY

6. Language:

English	01	
Afrikaans	02	
Zulu	03	
Xhosa	04	
Ndebele	05	
North Sotho	06	
South Sotho	07	
Setswana	08	
Siswati	09	
XiTsonga	10	
Venda	11	
Other (please specify)	12	

9 -10

ALL PARTICIPANTS

7. Number of years as head of department:

Less than 1	1	
1-3	2	
4-6	3	
More than 6	4	

11

8. Number of years with current institution:

1-5	1	
6-10	2	
11-15	3	
16-20	4	
20+	5	

12

9. Please indicate positions of responsibility held prior to the current one.

……
……
……
……
…

10. Number of years in each previous post listed above

……
……
…….

OFFICE USE ONLY

Place a X in the appropriate box. Select one option only,

unless otherwise indicated

11. Is your position of HoD/chair a fixed term?

Yes	1	
No	2	

13

12. If you answered yes above, what is the length of the term?

Less than 3 years	1	
3 years	2	
More than 3 years	3	

14

13. Do you receive a salary for the HoD/Chair position?

Yes	1	
No	2	

15

14. What is the average number of normal office hours you work in a typical week ?

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
50+	6	

16

15. What is the average number of hours you work in a typical week outside of your normal office hours?

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
50+	6	

17

16. On what basis are you employed?

Permanent	1	
Temporary	2	
Fixed term /contract	3	
Other	4	

18

17. How many opportunities for promotion in your job have you had in the past five years in your current institution? ……

18. List all the activities you were involved in at departmental and/or institutional level before you became HoD or chair?(for example: tuition; research; committee work etc)
……

……
……

19. What is the procedure for becoming HoD/Chair at your institution?

……

20. What motivated you to accept/apply for the position of HoD?

……
……

21. Do you have a mentor? **Place a X in the appropriate box**

1	Yes	
2	No	

19

22. If so, what is the gender of your mentor?

1	Male	
2	Female	

20

SECTION B

Department profile

23. Name of department/instructional unit of which you are head/chair

.....

Place a X in the appropriate box. Please Select one

option only, unless otherwise indicated. **OFFICE USE**

24. Number of students (Full and part time) in the department/instructional unit

200 or less	1	
201-400	2	
401-600	3	
601-800	4	
801-1000	5	

21

25. Total number of full time lecturers/ teaching staff in your department/instructional unit.

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
Over 50	6	

22

26. Number of full-time female lecturers/teaching staff

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
Over 50	6	

23

27. Number of part time lecturers/teaching staff in your department

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
Over 50	6	

24

28. Number of part-time female lecturers/teaching staff

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
Over 50	6	

25

29. Number of support staff/non teaching staff in your department/instructional unit

10 or less	1	
11-20	2	
21-30	3	
31-40	4	
41-50	5	
Over 50	6	

26

SECTION C

Career preparation and advancement opportunities

30.What do you think helped you get to your present posion? Check **all** that apply.

Self-motivation	1	
Support of family	2	
Encouragement by colleagues	3	
Encouragement by mentor	4	
Managerial involvement	5	
Employment equity	6	
Previous head of department	7	
Publications	8	
Qualifications	9	
Other (please specify)	10	

	27
	28
	29
	30
	31
	32
	33
	34
	35
	36-37

31.Did you have any formal preparation for the

position of HoD/Chair?

Yes	1	
No	2	

38

32. If yes, what was the nature of the preparation? (please check **all** that apply)

Mentorship programme offered by institution	1	
Managerial training offered by institution	2	
Self-initiated managerial training	3	

39-41

33. Do you have any specific steps or actions to advance further in your academic career?(e.g. enrolling in a management course etc)

Yes	1	
No	2	

42

34. If yes, please indicate where you would like to be in your career in the long term?(i.e 5 years) from now.

……
……
……

35. What factors militate/ or have militated against your advancement in your career?

……
……
……
……

36. If you have encountered obstacles in your career advancement, how did you overcome them?……
……
…….

SECTION D
Skills

37. Below are listed several skills which are desired in today's academic management era. How **important** are these skills to you in your present position as HoD/Chair? Please use the scale below to indicate your response.

Scale:
1. Very important
2. Important
3. Neutral
4. Not very important
5. Not important

		Very important	Important	Neutral	Not very important	Not important		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
37.1	Verbal communication								43
37.2	Written communication								44
37.3	Listening								45
37.4	Empathising								46
37.5	Empowering others								47
37.6	Collaboration								48
37.7	Problem solving								49
37.8	Conflict resolution								50
37.9	Stress management								51
37.10	Organizational ability								52
37.11	Team building								53
37.12	Decisiveness								54
37.13	Negotiating								55
37.14	Lobbying								56
37.15	Entrepreneurial skills								57
37.16	Research								58
37.17	Teaching								59
37.18	Advocacy								60
37.19	Delegation								61
37.20	Mediation								62
37.21	Working with support staff								63
37.22	Maintaining detailed records								64
37.23	Creating vision								65
37.24	Managing resources								66
37.25	Leading people								67
37.26	Understanding of the headship role								68

SECTION E
Perception of skill level

38. Please indicate your perception, in each instance, of your skill level from High to Low. 5 being Very High and 1 being Very Low. Please use the scale below to indicate your response.

Scale: 1. Very low
2. Low
3. Average
4. High
5. Very high

		Very low	low	Average	High	Very high		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
38.1	Verbal communication								69
38.2	Written communication								70
38.3	Listening								71
38.4	Empathising								72
38.5	Empowering others								73
38.6	Collaboration								74
38.7	Problem solving								75
38.8	Conflict resolution								76
38.9	Organizational ability								77
38.10	Stress management								78
38.11	Team building								79
38.12	Decisiveness								80
38.13	Negotiating								81
38.14	Lobbying								82
38.15	Entrepreneurial skills								83
38.16	Research								84
38.17	Teaching								85
38.18	Advocacy								86
38.19	Delegation								87
38.20	Mediation								88
38.21	Working with support staff								89
38.22	Maintaining detailed records								90
38.23	Creating vision								91
38.24	Managing resources								92
38.25	Leading people								93
38.26	Understanding of the Headship role								94

SECTION F

Job Challenges

39. To what extent do you agree the following are **challenges** to you in your current job situation? Please use the scale below to indicate your response.

Scale: 1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
39.1	Developing new programmes for accreditation								95
39.2	Promoting gender equity								96
39.3	Promoting racial justice								97
39.4	Balancing family and career								98
39.5	Managing cultural diversity								99
39.6	Responding to the needs of a diverse student population								100
39.7	Assessing program quality								101
39.8	Maintaining program quality								102
39.9	Addressing issues of accountability								103
39.10	Implementing quality assurance measures								104
39.11	Strengthening the curriculum								105
39.12	Managing the needs of the department in the face of increasing financial constraints								106
39.13	Attracting and retaining non-traditional students								107
39.14	Assessing teaching effectiveness								108
39.15	Dealing with difficult department staff members								109
39.16	Managing departmental data using current technological systems								110
39.17	Dealing with unsatisfactory staff performance								111
39.18	Building an effective team								112
39.19	Building networks								113
39.20	Undertaking and fostering creativity and initiative								114
39.21	Office administration								115
39.22	Personnel management								116

40. Other job challenges: Please specify

……

……

SECTION G

Strategies

41. Below are listed several strategies useful in addressing the **job challenges** listed in the previous section – **question 29**. Please use the scale below to indicate the extent to which you agree that the strategies would be useful to you in your current position.

Scale: 1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5.Strongly Disagree

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		**FOR OFFICE USE ONLY**	
		1	2	3	4	5			
41.1	Staff professional development workshops								117
41.2	Increasing participation of women students and staff in all areas of academic life								118
41.3	Deliberately seeking out members of other racial groups for development and promotion								119
41.4	Balancing personal and professional activities								120
41.5	Being fair and transparent								121
41.6	Evaluating teaching and assessment techniques								122
41.7	Attracting, nurturing and retaining good staff								123
41.8	Evaluating current departmental performance in leadership development								124
41.9	Building strong support networks with other Heads/Chairs								125
41.10	Seeking external funding								126
41.11	Clearly specifying roles and responsibilities for HoDs/Chairs								127
41.12	Participating in leadership and management training workshops and seminars								128
41.13	Using flexible student admission procedures								129
41.14	Participating in social events and programs focused on common areas of interest								130
41.15	Using consultants								131

SECTION H

Leadership and management

42. To what extent do you think the following are **important** in the management and leadership of your department: Please use the scale below to indicate your response.

Scale: 1. Very important
2. Important
3. Neutral
4. Not very important;
5. Not important

		Very important	Important	Neutral	Not very important	Not important		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
42.1	Cost-efficiency								132
42.2	Value-for-money								133
42.3	Audit								134
42.4	Performance indicators								135
42.5	Intellectual development								136
42.6	Professionalism								137
42.7	Collaboration								138
42.8	Open and egalitarian collegiality								139
42.9	Performance, standards and improvement								140
42.10	Equal opportunities/employment equity								141
42.11	Social justice, equity and cooperation								142
42.12	Efficiency, individualism and competition								143
42.13	Inspirational vision								144
42.14	Integrity, personal example and persistence								145
42.15	Nurturing creativity, learning and autonomy								146
42.16	Sharing power with members of the department								147
42.17	Delegating responsibilities to others								148
42.18	Encouraging teaching staff to use a wide variety of teaching approaches								149
42.19	Programmes designed with flexible entry and exit points								150
42.20	Recognition of prior learning								151
42.21	Selective admissions policies								152
42.22	Preparing students to meet the needs of business and industry								153
42.23	The concept of life-long learning programmes								154
42.24	Providing academic development programmes for students								155

SECTION I

Tasks and functions

6. Below is a list of tasks and functions identified in the literature as being performed by heads/chairs. Please indicate the degree of **importance** of each task to your current position. Please use the scale below to indicate your response:

Scale:
1. Very important
2. Important
3. Neutral
4. Not very important
5. Not important

		Very Important	Important	Neutral	Not very Important	Not Important		**FOR OFFICE USE ONLY**	
		1	2	3	4	5			
43.1	Recruit and select staff								156
43.2	Recommend promotion of staff								157
43.3	Evaluate and appraise staff performance								158
43.4	Recruit students								159
43.5	Seek external funding for department								160
43.6	Manage the department budget and resources								161
43.7	Foster good teaching in the department								162
43.8	Promote staff development								163
43.9	Develop new programmes for accreditation								164
43.10	Market new programmes								165
43.11	Conduct departmental meetings								166
43.12	Maintain essential records including student records								167
43.13	Organize teaching and research								168
43.14	Represent the department to higher management								169
43.15	Acquire management resources								170
43.16	Develop and implement long-range plans for the department								171
43.17	Implement equal employment opportunities/employment equity								172
43.18	Serve as link to external groups								173
43.19	Document all activities in the department for quality audit and assessment purposes								174
43.20	Assign teaching and other responsibilities								175

SECTION J

Role perception

44. How important to you is each role in your current position as HoD?

Please use the scale below to indicate your response:

Scale:
1. Very important
2. Important
3. Neutral
4. Not very important
5. Not important

		Very Important	Important	Neutral	Not very important	Not important		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
44.1	Planner								176
44.2	Motivator								177
44.3	Manager								178
44.4	Researcher								179
44.5	Advisor								180
44.6	Negotiator								181
44.7	Entrepreneur								182
44.8	Recruiter								183
44.9	Decision maker								184
44.10	Teacher								185
44.11	Delegator								186
44.12	Advocator								187
44.13	Leader								188
44.14	Evaluator								189
44.15	Innovator								190
44.16	Coordinator								191
44.17	Communicator								192
44.18	Nurturer								193
44.19	Visionary								194
44.20	Conflict resolver								195
44.21	Resource allocator								196
44.22	Mentor								197

SECTION K

Leadership style

45. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership traits listed here describe your style of leadership? Please use the scale below to indicate your response:

Scale: 1.Strongly Agree

2.Agree

3. Undecided

4. Disagree

5. Strongly Disagree

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
45.1	Directive/authoritative								198
45.2	Coercive								199
45.3	Participative/consultative								200
45.4	Collaborative								201
45.5	Democratic								202
45.6	Autocratic								203
45.7	Other-oriented								204
45.8	Task-oriented								205
45.9	Centralized								206
45.10	Decentralized								207
45.11	Empathetic								208
45.12	Detached(emotionally)								209
45.13	Assertive								210
45.14	Passive								211
45.15	Engaged								212
45.16	Aloof(personally)								213

SECTION L

Academic Leadership

46. Academic leadership in the department involves many demands. Indicate the extent to which you agree that the following are demands that you are experiencing as an HoD/Chair. Please use the scale below to indicate your response:

Scale: 1.Strongly Agree

2. Agree

3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree		FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
		1	2	3	4	5			
46.1	Providing intellectual direction								214
46.2	Encouraging excellence in research								215
46.3	Representing collective purposes and interests								216
46.4	Guiding and developing disciplinary and teaching directions								217
46.5	Providing direction in designing new programmes								218
46.6	Stimulating and focussing individual and group effort								219
46.7	Implementing the policy and mission of the institution for central administration								220
46.8	Acting as channel for communication between central administration/upper management and department staff								221
46.9	Facilitating and encouraging the work of the individual and of the group								222
46.10	Being a servant of the group who embraces the group's values and goals								223
46.11	Being a leader who inspires and leads personnel and creates a positive climate in the department								224
46.12	Attracting resources to the department								225
46.13	Managing conflict in times of change when different strong conflicting goals are often expressed								226
46.14	Being responsible for budget oversight, marketing and personnel management								227

Thank you for your time

APPENDIX E

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONING ROUTE

INTRODUCTIONS AND MOTIVATION FOR BECOMING HOD

Please introduce yourself:

Your name; your university/institution; the department of which you are head; the number of years you've been head of this department

There must be certain factors which have influenced your career to take the direction it has. Would you care to share these factors ?

SUCCESS FACTORS

Please share with us what factors, in your opinion, are critical for success in your position.

Let's talk about advantages and disadvantages (in general) of being a woman HoD. If you have personally experienced any advantages or disadvantages, would you care to share them with us?

CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND BARRIERS

Sometimes there may be structures within the institution which may **prevent** your chances for promotion to senior management. If you are aware of such structures could you please talk about them?

Are there certain structures within the institution which you believe may **help** your chances for promotion

In addition to institutional structures, could you talk about any **persona**l factors you are aware of that may **facilitate** or **militate against** your promotion to higher office within the institution.

JOB CHALLENGES; ROLE PERCEPTIONS; NEW ROLES AND TRAINING

Challenges:
Surely your job has many challenges. From your experience can you tell me what aspects of your job you find most challenging?

Any aspects of your job which you find most rewarding?

You must have had some unpleasant moments in your role as HoD/chair. Would you care to share what aspects of your role you have found most unpleasant.

Any aspects of your role as HoD/chair which have given you great satisfaction?

Perceptions:

Before you became HoD/chair, you must have had certain perceptions of the role of HoD/chair . Please share your perceptions with me.

If your perceptions have changed now that you are HoD/chair yourself, please tell me in what way/s they have changed.

New roles and responsibilities:

Since you assumed this position, there must be new roles and responsibilities that have been added to your job. What might these be?

Could you share with me what sets of knowledge you have gained through the experience of being a HoD/chair .

Training:

If you had some formal preparation for your current role, would you please describe it.

If you are currently receiving training to help you in your role, please describe the nature of this training.

COPING WITH STRESS

This kind of job is known to be stressful. Please share with me how you cope with the stresses and strains of your job.

What do you consider yourself to be primarily - an academic leader or line manager. Can you elaborate?

LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Can you talk about factors within your department which **facilitate** your ability to carry out your responsibilities as HoD/Chair

Can you also discuss those factors within your department which **hinder** your ability to carry out your responsibilities

At campus level, can you identify those factors which **facilitate** your ability to carry out your responsibilities

Can you also identify those factors at campus level which **hinder** your ability to carry out your responsibilities

Some tasks which you perform probably take up a lot of your time. What may those tasks be?

And just how do you feel about the amount of time you spend on these tasks?

Tell us whether, as a woman leader/manager, you feel that women have to change themselves in order to lead academically or managerially?

Did you have to make any changes in your personal, professional and career life to accommodate your new responsibilities as HoD/Chair? Please elaborate.

Tell me how you feel about your ability to handle all the changes occurring in your department currently.

Please share with me how you manage to balance your home and work responsibilities.

Tell me if you have you experienced any prejudice or negative attitude toward you as a woman HoD/Chair. Would you care to elaborate?

May I ask if your work is at all affected by race, gender and sexism. If it is affected, please elaborate.

Could you tell me if, as a woman HoD/Chair, you feel obliged to take the lead in championing the cause of women(in other words do you feel obliged to participate actively in the fight against exclusionary practices and to encourage the advancement of other women?). Please elaborate on your answer.

Finally, what words of wisdom would you like to impart to prospective women HoDs/Chairs?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.